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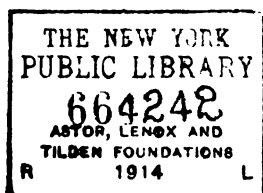
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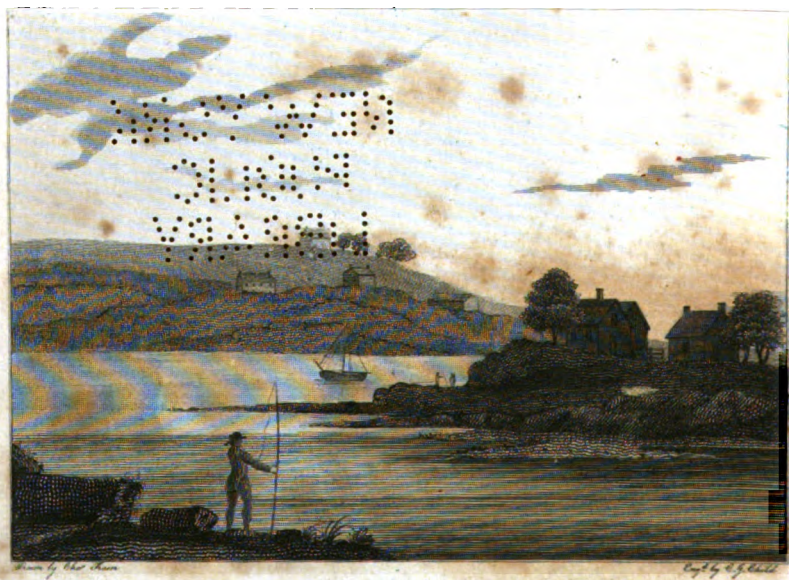
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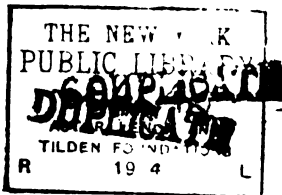


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DAVID CALDWELL,
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THE

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JULY, 1817.

ART. I.—1. *A Portraiture of Domestic Slavery in the United States: with Reflections on the Practicability of restoring the moral Rights of the Slave, without impairing the legal Privileges of the Possessor; and a Project of a colonial Assylum for free Persons of Colour: including Memoirs on the interior Traffic of Slaves, and on Kidnapping. Illustrated with Engravings.* By JESSE TORREY, Jun. Physician, &c. Philadelphia. 1817. 8vo. pp. 94.

2. *A brief View of the actual Condition and Treatment of the Negro Slaves, in the British Colonies; in a Letter to a Member of the Imperial Parliament.* By Captain HENDERSON, late 2d Battalion 44th Regiment, and Assistant-Quarter-Master-General. London. 1816. 8vo. pp. 56.

FIERI potest (says an obscure proser, whom, we suspect, Dr. Torrey and Captain Henderson have never come across),
 'ut recte quis sentiat, et id, quod sentit, polite eloqui non possit.
 'Sed mandare quemquam litteris cogitationes suas, qui eas nec dis-
 'ponere, nec illustrare possit, nec delectatione aliqua allicere lec-
 'torem, hominis est intemperanter abutentis et otio, et litteris.
 'Itaque suos libros ipsi legunt cum suis, nec quisquam attingit,
 'praeter eos, qui eandem licentiam scribendi sibi permitti volunt.'
 All this might have been true, when Cicero wrote; but, at present, a very sad class of people have 'to touch' such books—besides those who read them through sympathetic companionship in misery. The Reviewers must toil through them, whether they be rightly arranged, or happily illustrated, or afford him pleasure of any sort: and it is not the least cause of our proverbial fastidiousness, that we are condemned to the perusal of books, which contain nothing but a repetition and see-saw of stale 'cogitations,' and which have no other effect, than to rock all one's faculties to sleep. This is the sort of book which has been compiled by Dr. Jesse Torrey; a very well-intentioned personage, who, most assuredly, has the good of all mankind at heart,—but who, we must be permitted to think, has no more right to publish books, than we have to administer catharticks. The cause of humanity is not

to be served, by scraping together a few singular instances of abuse, in our system of negro-slavery; nor by stringing, one with another, a parcel of quotations, 'in prose, or numerous verse,' from books which we have thumbed from our youth up. Legislators must now be shown, that abuse is general, before they can be excited to reformation; and the time is gone by, when men could be much effected by Sterne's calling slavery 'a bitter draught,'—or by Cowper's asserting, that he 'had rather wear the chains himself than fasten them on slaves,'—or by Dr. Torrey's singing,

'Columbia! Columbia! to glory arise,
Queen of the world and child of the skies.
Let thy 'heroes heaven-born band,
Who fought and bled in freedom's cause,
Who fought and bled in freedom's cause,'
Cease to adore rude Guinea's laws.'—P. 39–40.

Captain Henderson carries on these things in a very different style. He is one of those raw hands at composition, who have an idea, that good writing is a deep and mysterious art; and he is, moreover, so very much afraid, that the language of an Ex-Assistant-Quarter-Master-General might possibly smell of gun-powder, that he is fain to seek all manner of unused and circumlocutory phraseology. Any body can say, for instance, that, in the West Indies, the negroes ordinarily go to work at daylight, and leave off at two or three in the afternoon; but it requires a person of no common powers and research to tell us, that, 'on some occasions, perhaps not a few, amongst the more industrious slaves in our Colonies, it may have been observed, that the hour of two or three at noon (we have been accustomed to think, that 'the hour of two or three' was somewhat *after* noon) has been the point of time at which their labours for the day have terminated. It will be understood that daylight is the ordinary commencement of them.' To such lowly writers as we are, also, there appears to be no great mystery in expressing one's dissent to a proposition; whereas an author like Captain Henderson can never stop short of enunciating, with due solemnity, that, 'with regard to this or that position, he holds no hesitation in at once offering a negative.' *Scale* and *share* are two great words with our Captain; and he contrives to get them in somewhere in almost every paragraph—whether they be appropriate or not. He says, for example, that the West Indian planters pay as much attention to the bringing up of their negroes, as the English manufacturers do to that of their apprentices; 'though,' continueth he, 'I hold (*hold*, by the way, is another of his favourite words) I hold both as being entirely without excuse, for so *thorough a share* of indifference towards a matter of such deep importance.' Again—'As connected with the above (says he) it may not be altogether apart from my subject, should I say something, in a concise way, before I conclude, of the master; a rank, from the intimate connexion I have held with

many of our settlements abroad that has occasionally called for a *share* of my regard.' This is the way, in which the Captain marshals his sentences. Every thing is involved, or evolved, with the greatest solemnity; and paragraph after paragraph wheels into his pages, with all imaginable pomp and circumstance. Nor is this the only effect of the discipline in 'the 2d battalion 44th regiment.' Every thing must be precise and explanatory; and if, for instance, he has occasion to use the word *hospital*, he adds the definition, '*or sick-house*,' lest, peradventure, his readers should have to consult a dictionary. These, and a variety of other pleasant things, which we cannot spare room to detail, have amused us in the perusal of the *Brief View*. The Captain thinks, nevertheless, that his pamphlet is no small achievement; and he is very evidently afraid, that some of his 'ungracious' pages—though there is nothing but the most imperturbable good humour throughout the performance—should, by some misconstruction, be displeasing to his friends; 'rather than give offence to whom, (says he), I would cheerfully expunge this or any higher effect of my pen:'—for, as an edifying piece of bibliography, we learn, in divers places, that this pamphlet is, by no means, the only '*effect*' which Captain Henderson's pen has produced.

In short, we have chosen to place these two title-pages at the head of this article,—not because either of the publications open any new views, or disclose many new facts, on the subject to which they relate,—but because they are the latest American and English treatises, which pretend to develop the system of negro-slavery, as it exists in the respective dominions of the only two Powers, who are taking measures for its progressive amelioration and final abolishment. There is no end to the number of pamphlets, which the discussion has called forth, in Great Britain; where, owing chiefly to a corporation of active philanthropists, the question has, more constantly than anywhere else, been kept before the eyes of the public. For more than twenty years, it has alternately employed the tongues and the pens of her ablest speakers and writers; and, on no subject, perhaps, has eloquence and logic together displayed their powers to more advantage, or with greater success. We have the presumption to think, nevertheless, that neither these speakers, nor these writers, have gone rightly to work in the discussion; and we shall attempt to show, before we get through this article, that, unless they strike into a different course, from that which they have heretofore pursued, they will not be able, consistently with the established laws of the land, to go one step farther, in the great work of abolishing negro-slavery. It has all along been taken for granted, on both sides of the question, that negroes can be lawfully held in bondage; and that, in truth, they are as much the property of their masters, as horses, oxen, or any other beasts of burthen. Declaimers abundantly inform us, to be sure, that Africans are human beings, and must, therefore, be intitled to the rights of man; but such vague sort of reasoning seldom

produces the requisite conviction,—and is, indeed, most effectually counteracted, by the constant recurrence of expressions, which involve an admission of the contrary. We have never seen it plainly denied, that a planter has any right, either in reason, or in law, to the beings, whom he calls his slaves; or, that, in other words, he can legally claim a property of any kind, either in their persons, or in their services. This, however, *we* undertake to deny, and shall undertake to disprove. Nay more—we will undertake to show, that the promulgation of such a doctrine need not be attended with the slightest danger to any of the parties, whose interest it seems so immediately to jeopardize.

There is no imaginable absurdity, connected with this subject, which has not, first or last, been resorted to, by those who advocate the slavery of negroes. Even the ironical and ludicrous arguments, by which Baron Montesquieu said he would vindicate the system,—such as, that ‘these creatures (B. xv. c. 5.) are all over black, and with such a flat nose, that they can scarcely be pitied,’ and that ‘it is hardly to be believed that God, who is a wise Being, should place a soul, especially a good soul, in such a black ugly body’—have, with little mutation, been seriously and earnestly alleged, in favour of the practice, by some of his late countrymen. We cannot be expected to go through with a refutation of such abominable nonsense as this. There are certain other plausible considerations, however, which have been constantly repeated, from the time of Justinian; and which, though, in our opinion, completely refuted by the President Montesquieu, are still brought forward by the anti-abolitionists, and passed by, in silence, by their opposers. This latter circumstance has surprised us the more, because the reasoning of the President, by being translated into Judge Blackstone’s Commentaries, (B. I. c. 14.), was furnished to the hand of every Englishman, who pretends to have the least knowledge of his boasted Constitution. And this circumstance, too, must be our apology for introducing, here, a passage from the most elementary and the most common of all works upon law. We prefer the Judge’s translation, both because it is more concise than the original, and because, by being adopted in his *viginti annorum lucubrationes*, it has become a portion of the English law. ‘The three origins of slavery, assigned by Justinian, (says he), are all of them built upon false foundations. ‘As, first, slavery is held to arise *jure gentium*, from a state of ‘captivity in war; whence slaves are called *mancipia*, *quasi manu capti*. The conqueror, say the civilians, had a right to the life ‘of his captive; and, having spared that, has a right to deal with ‘him as he pleases. But it is an untrue position, when taken ‘generally, that by the law of nature or nations, a man may kill ‘his enemy: he has only a right to kill him, in particular cases; in ‘cases of absolute necessity,* for self-defence; and it is plain this

* ‘All nations (a few Cannibals excepted, a striking fact adduced by Montesquieu) concur in detesting the murdering of prisoners in cold blood.’ B. xv. c. 2.

'absolute necessity did not subsist, since the victor did not actually kill him. War is justifiable only on principles of self-preservation; and therefore it gives no other right over prisoners but merely to disable them from doing harm to us, by confining their persons; much less can it give a right to kill, torture, abuse, plunder, or even to enslave, an enemy, when the war is over. Since therefore the right of making slaves by captivity depends on a supposed right of slaughter, that foundation failing, the consequence drawn from it must fail likewise. But, secondly, it is said that slavery may begin *jure civili*; when one man sells himself to another. This, if only meant of contracts to serve or work for another, is very just: but when applied to strict slavery, (in a sense of the laws of old Rome or modern Barbary, or 'at present in our colonies,' adds Montesquieu, *ut sup.*) is impossible. Every sale implies a price, a *quid pro quo*, an equivalent given to the seller in lieu of what he transfers to the buyer: but what equivalent can he give for life, and liberty, both of which (in absolute slavery) are held to be in the master's disposal? His property also, the very price he scorns to receive, devolves *ipso facto* to his master, the instant he becomes his slave. In this case therefore the buyer gives nothing, and the seller receives nothing: of what validity then can a sale be, which destroys the very principle upon which sales are founded? Lastly, we are told, that besides these two ways by which slaves *fiunt*, or are acquired, they may also be hereditary: *servi nascuntur*; the children of acquired slaves are *jure natura*, by a negative kind of birthright, slaves also. But this, being built on the two former rights, must fall together with them. If neither captivity, nor the sale of one's self, can by the law of nature and reason reduce the parent of slavery, much less can they reduce the offspring.' We can add nothing to this unanswerable argument,—except, that these three origins of slavery are the very ones, which the antiabolitionists have continued to alledge, ever since the discussion commenced, and which, we venture to say, a planter would now adduce, if he were told there could be no possible foundation of his right to the beings, whom he denominates slaves. He might, indeed, be induced to tell us, that, though he has no right to their persons; yet he has to their services;—but could it escape him, that a right to services can only be founded upon a contract—upon an exchange of equivalents? And that,—laying aside the deprivation of liberty, which is itself above all price,—it would be ridiculous to pretend, that a negro ever became a slave, by the voluntary barter of his own services? In fine, we do not see, that, according to the principles of natural law, there is a possibility of one human being's making out his right to the person or services of another.

And there are other considerations, more particularly connected with the English law, which led us to precisely the same conclusion. England has completely turned the tables upon Africa. There was a time, when the English, of both sexes, were

not only exposed to sale in all the markets of Europe,—but transported and sold in Africa.* Between the fifth and eleventh centuries, indeed, it would have been no abuse of language to call a great part of Englishmen beasts of burthen. Our word *team*, though derived from the original Saxon, which signified *children*, came nevertheless by its present meaning, from being applied to slaves;†—slaves were, at the time we speak of, ranked with cattle of all kinds, under the general denomination of *living money*;‡ and, when Dr. Henry tells us, that, ‘for some time after the settlement of the Saxons in England, their slaves were in the same ‘circumstances with their horses, oxen, cows, and sheep, except ‘that it was not fashionable to kill and eat them,’§ did he mean to insinuate, that, with regard to the latter peculiarity, ‘their slaves’ were any better off than ‘their horses?’ Indeed, we suspect the only distinction, at that period, between a master’s various kinds of stock, was, that his horses and horned cattle walked on four legs; whereas, we have no sufficient authority for believing, that the human cattle used any more than two. Nothing is clearer, at any rate, than that the laws made no sort of distinction. It is expressly stated, in the *Leges Wallicæ*, ‘that a master hath ‘the same right to his slaves as to his cattle.’ ‘Slaves were not ‘supposed to have any family or relations, who sustained any loss ‘by their death; and therefore, when one of them was killed by ‘his master, no mulct was paid; because the master was supposed ‘to be the only looser; when slain by another his price or manbote ‘was paid to his master.’||

Let it be remembered, however, that, according to the spirit of these gothic laws, every individual in the community was as much a beast, as a slave, or a horse; the only distinction between different men consisting chiefly in the price put upon their respective heads. Life—liberty—every thing, in short, was considered as property, and estimated in pounds and shillings. By the laws of the Angles, for instance, you might kill the king for 1300*l.*; a prince, for half as much; a bishop, or an alderman, for 300*l.*; a sheriff, for 150*l.*; a thane, or clergyman, for 75*l.*; and a *ceorl* for about 10*l.*¶ The 6th law of Ethelbert is, ‘Let him that killeth ‘a freeman pay fifty shillings to the King *for his loss of a subject*,’ the 20th, ‘But if a man be killed, let the murderer compensate ‘his death with twenty shillings;’ the 21st, ‘If a man kill another, ‘be the ordinary mulct of an hundred shillings imposed upon ‘him;’ and the 31st, ‘Let him that killeth a man make compensation, according to the true valuation, in current money.’ Nor was life alone considered as so much property. Every limb of the body, even to the teeth and nails, had a definite price fixed upon it; and, what we remark more for its singularity, than for

* Hen. Hist. Qto. Ed. Vol. II. p. 480.

† Id. ib. p. 484.

‡ Id. ib. p. 236.

¶ Hume’s Hist. Vol. I. p. 163. Phil. Ed.

§ Id. ib. p. 579.

|| Id. ib. p. 229.

its direct reference to the subject, there was a sort of tacit compact between all the European nations, that, if a man was maimed, in travelling abroad, the part injured should go for what it was valued at, in his own country. Accordingly, 'the nose of a Spaniard, for example, (we use the words of Dr. Henry) was perfectly safe in England, because it was valued at 13 marks; but the nose of an Englishman run a great risk in Spain, because it was valued only at 12s. An Englishman,' furthermore, 'might have broken a Welchman's head for a mere trifle, but few Welchmen could afford to return the complement.' Even a wife was considered as mere property; and every marriage contract was a matter of bargain and sale. By Ethelbert's 76th law, 'if a man bought a maid, she stood for bought, if there were no fraud in the bargain; but if there were, she was to be returned and the purchaser's money restored to him;' and the same King's 32d law was, that, 'if a freeman lie with a freeman's wife, let him make amends for his crime, by buying another wife for the injured party.' Indeed, it was a maxim of jurisprudence, through all the middle ages, 'that there was no crime which might not be expiated with money;' and, as long as every thing was thought to have been made for this world only, we know not that the maxim can be considered as any very great absurdity. But the progress of reason, and, more than all, the introduction of Christianity, purified, by degrees, the spirit of Gothic jurisprudence. The light struck first, of course, upon the summit of society; and it was a considerable period before it reached to the base. The King and Barons were first emancipated from the slavery of having a price upon their heads; and, by a succession of ameliorating enactments, even the lowest order of bondmen were ultimately liberated. The leading doctrine of Christianity—that the soul is immortal—did more than any thing else, in placing the life of man beyond any estimate of money, or merchandize. It drew a broad line of distinction between the soul and the body; and set man at an immeasurable height above the beasts that perish. By the progressive melioration of the English law, he has left behind him all the animals, with which he was once ranked; and, though it is now felony to kill or to traffic in human beings, our poor oxen and horses may still be slaughtered or sold, with the greatest impunity. From these considerations it is sufficiently manifest, we think, that, according to the present spirit of English law, man is utterly beyond all price,—and that, consequently, no one human being can be the property of another.

There is one part of the English Constitution, indeed, which, at first sight, seems, in a measure, to disprove our conclusion. It is not to be denied, we confess, that, to one who looks only at the penal code of Great Britain, her laws would seem to hold the life of man in no very extravagant estimation. But the fact is by no means conclusive against our reasoning; and a slight historical review of the subject will abundantly show, we apprehend, that the

objection cannot have the least weight, in the minds of those, who breathe the spirit of the nineteenth century. At first, the whole system of the Britons was, without doubt, as sanguinary as that of all other savage nations. By some means or other, however, it became inordinately lenient about the fifth century; insomuch, that crimes of every sort were expiated by pecuniary compensation. Every thing, as we have seen above, was subjected to a 'valuation in current money;' and, among the rest, a sign of equality was established between the lives of men and a certain number of pounds and shillings. In the tenth century, it began to be discovered, that these laws were most dangerously ineffectual; and measures were accordingly taken to make them more severe and preventive. Reformation went on; and it was not long before the system was completely reversed; so, that, while formerly a man might slay his neighbour for 20s., he was now slain himself, for purloining a great deal less amount. The same principle, however, was still at the bottom of the scheme,—that of considering men in the degrading light of things that could have a price. The progress of religion and of reason, as we endeavoured to prove before, has completely subverted this barbarous doctrine;—so that, in fact, the penal code of England has utterly outgrown the reason of its foundation;—just as the depreciation of money has destroyed the reason for giving the right of suffrage to such as had a freehold of 40s. yearly value;—a sum which was fixed upon, as all know, because no individual could be considered as independent,* with a less income,—but which, according to the present value of money, can no more be the measure of a man's independence, than 1s. could, at its original institution. The penal code of Great Britain is a part of what we may call the Gothic constitutions; and ought to have passed away, with the other parts of that system. If the old methods of estimating testimony had been retained,—if, in other words, the ordeal and the corsned were still resorted to, and if the credibility of a person, under oath, continued to be rated according to his price or man-bote,—there would be some shadow of excuse, for preserving the ancient measure of punishment. But those other parts have been gone, time whereof the memory of man hardly runneth to the contrary; and we consider it as a standing reproach to the boasted excellence of the British Constitution, that this remnant did not go along with them. It is directly opposed to what all emphatically consider as the fundamental doctrine of the national religion; and, while England is taking every pains to translate the Bible in every language, and to place it in every hand, she obstinately adheres to a code of jurisprudence, which disavows the most invaluable of all its principles. This principle has pervaded the other parts of her constitution; and we hope, ere long, we may be able to say without the slightest qualification, that no branch

* Blk. B. I. c. 2. pp. 170, 173.

of the system supposes the life of man to be capable of estimation in the things of this world—or, which amounts to the same thing, to be capable of forfeiture for any crime but that of its wilful deprivation.

The principle we have now been endeavouring to establish will change the whole question of negro slavery; though of the manifold consequences which follow from it, we can find no room, at present, to particularise more than two or three of the most important. It is, in the first place, the only thing that could enable the English abolitionists to rebutt effectually the great and leading plea of the Colonists, against every measure for ameliorating the condition of their slaves; namely, that it controverts the spirit of British jurisprudence, by rendering private property insecure, and that, what is still more tyrannical, it violates their chartered rights, by taking from their own hands the power of exclusive legislation, for their internal concerns. They tell the mother country, that their slaves have been fairly bought, and are as much their legal property as an ox, or an ass, or any thing that is theirs: And, as long as they are permitted to alledge this plausible argument, without being satisfactorily answered, we apprehend, that the justness of their appeal to the British Constitution cannot possibly be got rid of. Parliament should speak in the spirit of her laws, and tell her complaining Colonists—as she may tell them, with perfect truth,—that they have *no* right to their slaves; that she recognises no principle, by which man may be ranked with merchandize, or with brute animals; and that, wherever the English laws prevail, the life and liberty of man are above all price, and, therefore, incapable of bargain and sale. This answer would be conclusive against the plea of interfering with a man's right to his property:—and it would be no less so, likewise, against that of interfering with the interior legislation of the Colonists. These Colonists have no right to legislate away the principles of English law; and, indeed, there is, in all their charters, we believe, an express provision, that nothing shall be done contrary to that law. When Parliament undertakes, therefore, to make changes in the situation of the blacks, it does nothing more than to enforce laws, which are equally cogent, in every part of her dominions; and, instead of being considered as an encroachment on the legislative rights of the Colonists, such a measure ought, in fact, to be viewed as merely the assertion of its own rights, against the encroachments of the Colonists themselves. If Parliament were to pass acts, which, by abolishing the use of yokes and harness, for example, should ultimately lead to the emancipation of all colonial oxen and horses, we should agree with the West Indians, that it had made their property insecure, and had interfered with their internal economy. But oxen and horses, we must repeat it, are no way analogous to human creatures. The great criterion of property, is, that it may be bought and sold; to be capable of sale and purchase, a thing must be estimable in current money; and,

as we flatter ourselves to have shown, that, according to the spirit and reason, not only of English law,—but of all law,—no human being can be thus estimated, or have a price, in other words—no human being, therefore, can possess that circumstance which alone constitutes the foundation of property. Every man must here judge for himself. Every man thinks his own life and liberty above all price; and yet they are the only equivalents, which the law will now accept, for the life of his fellow men, whether they be black, or white.

We return to this principle so often, because it is, in our opinion, the only one by which the English, in particular, can get along with the gradual abolition of negro slavery. So far, they have gone on well. By gradually amending, and finally abolishing, the slave-trade, (we set them the example), they have not only lessened the number of African wars, which used to be undertaken to fill up its market,—but have materially bettered the condition of the slaves, who had already been its victims, by exciting masters to that comparative leniency and carefulness of treatment, which, since importation is almost out of the question, must, through what is called the breeding-system, be now the source of their future supply. But abolitionists were now to become emancipationists; and measures have, accordingly, been set in train for the additional melioration of West Indian slavery. We cannot enter into the detail of the Registry Bill, of which our readers must all know something; but, we must observe, that, if the authors of it will still consent to have slaves denominated property, they cannot execute the measure, without a gross violation of colonial rights, and of the British Constitution. The Abolition was confessedly an act of external regulation;—the Registry is no less certainly a measure of internal amendment. The former related to the general subject of trade; which no one disputes the authority of Parliament to regulate;—the latter, on the contrary, goes into the domestic economy of particular dependencies, and aims at the control of subjects, which have been expressly placed in different hands. One provision of the Registry Bill, indeed, brings into discussion again the questions, which separated the United States from the mother country; and, on this subject, we think the colonial legislators and writers have decidedly the victory over their antagonists in England. The expense of registration will cost each colony an annual tax of some thousands of pounds; and yet this tax is to be levied, by the Parliament, without any representation from the Colonies; when it is a proverbial maxim of that Parliament, that taxation and representation shall go together,—and when the Year Books expressly state, that ‘a tax granted by the parliament of England shall not bind the dominions of Ireland, (it makes no difference what particular country it is), *because they are not summoned to our parliament;*’ and again, that ‘Ireland (or Jamaica, we may add) hath a parliament of its own, and maketh and altereth laws; and our statutes do not bind them, be-

*'cause they do not send knights to parliament.'** These, and a variety of other objections, which we cannot spare room to particularize, have induced the Parliament to postpone, at any rate, the adoption of the Registry measure. It was most ably and strenuously opposed, by the colonial legislatures, and by their writers in England. Frequent allusion was made to the case of America; and, though the mother country might, perhaps, be conscious of abundant power to get under the rebellion, which was hinted at; yet it was clearly seen, we apprehend, that a war with the West Indians would be attended with incalculable disadvantages,—and that the question was not, whether they might not be ultimately subdued,—but whether they would be worth the expense of life and treasure, which the subduction must cost. The Colonies saw, or thought they saw, that the measure was a death-blow to what they considered as their property; and, if they were to fall, they had determined, we have no doubt, to fall with harness on their backs. They talked language, which was by no means conciliatory:—their number was even ominous, and England must have had some strange reminiscencies, in contemplating a war with another Thirteen United Provinces. She will find, in the end, we imagine, that Colonists must be dealt with as reasonable beings; and not voted this way and that, by a body of men three thousand miles off, without listening to their expostulations, or answering their arguments. They are permitted to rest under a full conviction, that their slaves are absolute property; while measures are on foot to make that property insecure. We do not think this is the right way of going to work. The emancipationists should labour, first, to convince the planters, that slaves are not, and cannot be, property; and they can, then, proceed in the good work with truth and justice on their side.

We must lightly touch upon one subject more, to which the doctrine we have advocated might be practically applied. We have heard loud complaints from all sides, against the practice, which subsists in our Southern States, as well as in the West Indies, of apprehending and selling idle and loitering negroes, who cannot prove their freedom, upon the general presumption of their being slaves. It is called reducing freemen to bondage; and it seems to be more accordant with the spirit of law, that we should presume every person to be innocent of slavery, until he is proved to be guilty. Yet, as long as a state of slavery is acknowledged to exist, we do not see any impropriety in the practice here alluded to; and nothing is more certain, than that it is warranted by the analogies of English law. The last statute on this subject, and the first of Edward VI., is very much to the point. 'If any person 'shall bring to two justices of the peace any runnagate servant, or

* These passages are cited by Judge Blackstone from the 20 Hen. VI. 8, and the 2 Ric. III. 12.; and we have preferred to quote him on this occasion, because he has taken the pains to alledge authorities which completely subvert his own subsequent reasoning. See *Introduct.* pp. 101, 108-9.

‘other which liveth idle and loiteringly, by the space of three days, the said justices shall cause the said idle and loitering servant or vagabond, to be marked with a hot iron on the breast, with the mark V, and adjudge him to be the slave of the same person that brought or presented him, to have him, his executors, or assigns, for two years after; so shall he take the said slave, and give him bread, water or small drink, and refuse meat, and cause him to work by beating, chaining, or otherwise, in such work or labour as he shall put him unto, be it never so vile. And if such slave absent himself from the said master within the said term of two years, by the space of fourteen days, then he shall be adjudged by the two justices of the peace, to be marked on the forehead, or the ball of the cheek, with a hot iron, with the sign of an S, and further shall be adjudged to be slave to the said master for ever.’ By this statute, there was a line of distinction drawn between those who had V’s on their breasts, and those who had not. The V was conclusive and final evidence of slavery; and the reason why it became necessary to inflict such a mark, was, that nature had not stamped, upon any of the English, a characteristic sign, by which one class might be distinguished from the other. Had she, in a whimsy, concluded to give these ‘idle and loitering’ persons a V on the breast, there would have been no occasion to sear it on with a hot iron; but as all men were alike in almost every particular, it became necessary, as we just said, to make an artificial characteristic, to distinguish the free from the slave. Now, it will not be pretended, that an African ever came to the United States, or to the West Indies, of his own mere motion and choice. All who have landed, in either of the two countries, were indubitably slaves; and, if any have obtained their freedom, they still form exceptions only to the general rule. Here there never was any necessity for a V on the breast, or any other artificial distinction; for nature had stamped negroes all over with a characteristic mark, which was unequivocal and indellible. Our readers, therefore, cannot but see, we think, how nearly the two cases are analogous; and, when the Reporter of the African Institution makes such a doleful plaint, because the Colonial Courts now answer to all arguments for the freedom of a vagabond negro, ‘that his skin is black’—he should have recollected, that, formerly, under the same circumstances, the English Courts would have ‘rejoined’—‘he has a V on his breast.’ If our laws will recognise such a state as that of slavery, there is no help for the necessary and concomitant evils; and the only way, it strikes us, in which the presumption here spoken of can be destroyed, is, by denying, at once, that any human being is, or has been, or can be, a slave.

But, we shall be told, that the consequences of this doctrine do not stop here; that, by denying the existence of slavery at all, we not only loosen,—but absolutely cut asunder, the tenure by which a master holds his negroes; and that there can be no difference be-

tween disproving their bondage, and telling them to go about their business. Those, in short, who think we have entered precipitately upon this question, will accuse us of aiming at immediate and simultaneous emancipation—and of exposing our southern fellow-citizens to all the pitiless storms of such a revolution, as suddenly emancipated slaves are known to carry on. Now, all these consequences we utterly disclaim. We have as little disposition, as any of our readers, to make a Kakatopia of the Southern States, or of the West Indies; and we are as well convinced of the disastrous effects attending sudden emancipation, as if we had been stoned and beaten, along with a certain Knight of La Mancha, for the imprudent humanity of liberating the galley-slaves. The general good must be our guide, in this, as well as in all other cases; and, when we speak of the general good, we include the blacks, as well as the whites. We believe no philanthropist has the madness to pretend, that a simultaneous liberation of the negroes, in any place, where their numbers are equal or superior to those of the white men, would not, almost inevitably, induce the mutual destruction of both parties. When a man has not reason enough to know what his rights are, or a sufficient sense of duty to exercise them, without abuse, the law takes those rights in keeping, till he has; and Congress, or Parliament, have just the same reason to hold negroes under restraint, as courts of justice have, to prevent madmen from going abroad, or to throw criminals into prison. All we ask for the African, is, therefore, that he shall no longer be considered as a slave; that, on the contrary, he is entitled to the same rights as other men; that he should be put in the way of understanding those rights; and that he should have possession of them, as fast as he understands them. There must be a beginning; and, unless we begin by denying the legal existence of slavery, masters will still consider negroes as their property, and resist all attempts to shake the security of their tenure. Our object is, not to deprive the master of his slave's services; but to make those services voluntary, which are now compulsory.

Here, again, we shall be told, that our scheme is altogether illusory; that negroes are constitutionally indolent; that, even in Africa, they make no provision for the morrow; and that there is abundant experience of their incapability to do any thing, in America, unless they have the fear of the cartwhip before their eyes. What motive, in the name of all that is logical, have Africans to undertake voluntary work, either in their own country, or in this? In their own land, the perpetual wars between the petty tribes keep the whole country in alarm:—no property is secure for two days together; and no man will undertake to sow; for no man can expect to reap. What, indeed, *should* be the state of industry, in a country, where, as Sedi Hamit tells us, (Riley, 327), the little villages must be fenced in from enemies—and where, on the bare sight of strangers, the inhabitants pop into their miserable huts,

and block up the passage after them? The slave-traders have to answer for not a few of the wars, which have produced this insecurity; and it is provoking, beyond measure, that the very men, who have borne a part in making the negroes indolent, should now adduce the circumstance of that indolence, as a proof of their constitutional laziness. That Africans are not more indolent, by nature, than any other sort of people, is sufficiently apparent from the example of the Kroomen; a nation, who, by living many hundreds of miles in the interior, have probably enjoyed much greater security, than the tribes nearer the coast; and who, as our readers know, are not only found to be indefatigable day-labourers, at Sierra Leone,—but to make the best of soldiers, in the British West Indies. Now, the only difference between these soldiers, and the other Africans, in the same islands, is, that the former are hired, and the latter compelled, to work; that the Kroomen go through the manual exercise, without being flogged, because their engagement was voluntary, and because they know they reap themselves the fruits of their labour; whereas the slaves perform their agricultural tasks, under the actual application, or perpetual fear of the lash, because they are conscious of having been forced into servitude, and because they see that they work only for the good of others. That they *would* labour, even more than they do now, under a different system of management, the opposers of the Registry Bill have unwittingly furnished us with the most ample grounds for believing. In order to prevent the adoption of that Bill, both the Colonial legislators, and the Colonial pamphleteers, have vied with each other, in painting the happy condition of the slaves; and, if, allowing for the exaggeration into which they would naturally be led, not more than one half of their stories should be set down for truth, we shall yet have facts enough to show, that, under similar circumstances, and with the same motives, a negro will be as industrious as a white man.

Of all the Colonial writers on the subject, the author of a work, called *The Edinburgh Review and the West Indies*, has given us the most copious and satisfactory exposition of the facts. He is himself an old ‘Colonist;’ and he has let us into the domestic economy of a plantation, with a forwardness and zeal, which will do no good to the cause he so strenuously endeavours to support. We shall use his own words, in describing the situation of West Indian slaves; though we wish our readers to take his assertions, with a due allowance for the exaggeration, of which we cannot help but suspect him. ‘I assert, (says he, p. 148), that which is ‘capable of proof, namely, that in point of food, lodging, clothing, labour, and comfort when sick, and support in old age, there is ‘no slave, unless the contrary arises from his own conduct, who is ‘not in a much better state than any of the labouring classes in this ‘country,’ England. Again—‘I affirm, (says he), that industrious ‘negroes can afford to wear better clothes and to live on better ‘food than the white people in subordinate situations in the colo-

'nies.' He goes still further; and tells us, that, though many are idle and ragged—yet 'a distinction' between the 'industrious' and the lazy 'will continue to exist among the human race in every country and in every society;' and that the proportion of the former to the latter, is greater among the negroes, in the colonies, than among white men, in the mother country. 'The quantity of provisions raised (by the slaves, says he, p. 143,) is prodigious, and the quantity sold very great. One quarter of each island producing more perfectly than another the different kinds of provisions, a very considerable trade is consequently carried on between them; and the towns, and the shipping, are chiefly supplied with country provisions by the slaves. Many of them gain considerable sums by this means. I have given a negro forty dollars in the course of a few weeks, for provisions to supply the new negroes, or the sick and profligate slaves. The number of hogs, goats, and poultry of all kinds, raised by them, is astonishing, and at a little trouble and no expense. From them the white people purchase such things for their supply: and, I affirm, from personal knowledge, that no labourers, and but few of the smaller farmers in this country (England) have any thing like the stock of such animals, as are owned by industrious negroes.' 'Many tradesmen, (p. 145,) and those more ingenious among them, earn considerable sums of money by making furniture of various kinds, such as tables, stools, chairs, bedsteads, baskets, &c.' Now, compare all this abundance with what they receive gratuitously. 'Their master (id. p.) gives them annually a good English blanket; but the industrious slaves have just as good sheets as he has. Stools and chairs they get made by the tradesmen on the estate. In their clothes, even at their common field labour, they are not only clean but often fine. At work, both men and women appear in robes equal to any that servants here can afford; and when visiting or receiving their friends, and on Sundays and holidays, I must add much better.' Now, 'the dress annually received from their masters consists (only) of a hat, jacket, shirt and trousers, to common slaves; but to more confidential persons, double, besides a linen and a check shirt.' They get from their masters no greater supply of provisions, than is barely necessary for decent subsistence. They have but one day in the week to work for themselves; and yet we are told, that they raise more provisions, and produce more of every thing, in this scanty period, than day labourers in any country, who have seven times their number of working days! A great deal is undoubtedly to be allowed, for the extreme productiveness of the vegetables, which they chiefly cultivate; but, with every allowance, there can be no question that they can work, and do work, as much as other men, without the artificial stimulant of a cowhide. Indeed, when we thus see them, even in their present degraded state, aspiring to 'fine clothes,' 'clean linen,' 'good sheets,' and decent 'furniture'—what hopes might we not have of their industry, when once freed from bon-

dage, and permitted to work, in all things, and at all times, from the same motives as other men. Is it the cartwhip that makes some negroes 'earn considerable sums of money,' by making tables, chairs, bedsteads,' &c.? Must we still be told, that is necessary to flog negroes into industry, when, with only one day in the seven for work, they not only raise abundance of provisions for themselves,—but supply, in a great measure, the shipping, the towns, and the less productive quarters of the islands? And can we anywhere find a more satisfactory confirmation of what Dr. Smith so long ago proved to be the fact, with respect to free labourers, and slaves,—that the former will produce much more than the latter; and that, on every account, a free servant is cheaper than a bond one?*

But the planters will tell us, that they are going on, as fast as they can, with the work of amelioration; that they treat the negroes, now, a great deal better than they did formerly; and that, if we will only let them alone, they will ultimately do as much as can be done with the unfortunate beings, whom Providence has placed under their mastery. We have scarcely ever conversed with a *Southerner*, who did not express a sincere regret, at the necessity of keeping up our system of slavery—and who did not heartily wish, that no negro had ever been brought into the country, and that every one, who is in it, were well out of it. These are honourable regrets and wishes; and we have abundant reason to think, that they are shared by the great body of slave-holders in the United States. Nevertheless, we must despair of ever seeing the blacks put in train for enjoying the common rights of men, under the management of no other persons besides their present lords and masters. From their very childhood, they have seen themselves separated to an infinite distance from their negro slaves; who, instead of enjoying leisure, or opportunity, to teach their own young ideas how to shoot, have only been able to cultivate their master's cotton or tobacco plants, and to perform a variety of other work, which belongs to beasts alone. It is one of the master's earliest and strongest associations, therefore, that a negro is little superior to an ox; and, mistaking a deficiency of education, for a want of original abilities, they will tell you, as one of those unquestionable facts which grow up with us, that a black is infinitely below the white, in all those great attributes, which distinguish man from other animals. A negro, say they, no more doubts that the earth is flat, than that his own nose is flat; and, as to the extent of its surface, he has no idea of its going beyond his master's plantation. He is as ignorant of every thing else, as he is of geography; and you cannot persuade his master, that the whole of this ignorance may possibly arise from a want of adequate tuition. These are the natural prejudices of a master; prejudices, which, there can be little doubt, would for-

* *Wealth of Nat. B. I. c. 8.*

ever prevent the voluntary adoption of any system, that aimed at ultimate, though distant, emancipation. We are none of us so absurd as to think of giving the rights of men to beings, who have not the other attributes of men; and, where one class of human beings are considered as very little superior to dumb beasts, there is very little hope, that measures will ever be taken to give them a superiority.—There is, also, another cogent reason for believing, that masters, when left to themselves, will not be likely to their slaves in the way of gaining eventual liberation. All that they can call their own depends upon their slaves; who, it is naturally concluded, would be sure to put it in jeopardy, if they were released from absolute servitude, or permitted to acquire any more information. They have the most powerful of all motives, therefore, for keeping negroes in a state of utter ignorance and brutalism. Their fears are very natural; though, we think, they are destitute of good foundation; and we have no doubt ourselves, that some system might be devised, which, while it should not at all endanger the interests of the master, would nevertheless insure the ultimate freedom of the slave.

We must now turn to another part of the discussion, in which, we think, the English philanthropists have not taken exactly the right course. They have given their opponents a very needless advantage, by comparing our present slaves with the villeins of the middle ages; a comparison, which, so far as we can see, holds in only this one unimportant particular—that the former, like the latter, live together, in villages, on their masters' plantations. By admitting the comparison, in its full extent, we cannot help admitting, also, the consequences, which follow from it; and, when the Colonial Legislators ask us,* 'What is the fair deduction from these cases? That time and the regular course of human affairs will accomplish, in the British Colonies, what they brought about in the Roman Empire, and in modern Europe, without direct legal enactments and little assistance from any positive institutions'—we do not see how their antagonists can possibly refute them. They have keen and close reasoners to deal with; reasoners, indeed, whom they have been in the habit of treating with contempt,—but who have taken advantage of their loose comparisons, and shallow arguments, with the skill and ingenuity of masters. Ever since the mother country had Colonies, she has let them outreason her, because she has considered them as destitute of all power to reason; and has, therefore, neglected to take sufficient precautions, or to lay out sufficient strength. Indeed, it is the great characteristic of John Bull, to consider all beyond his own island as a night of ignorance; and to answer all arguments by doubling up his fist, and uttering Nestor Ironside's 'pish!' This is the way in which he lost his other American Co-

* Art. XVI. of a Report of the Jamaica Assembly, on the proposed Registry Bill, agreed to Dec. 20, 1815.

lonies; and it is the way, in which the present will be lost, unless he condescends to treat their inhabitants as reasonable beings.

It ought to have been asserted and proved, a long time ago, that, in no essential particular, can the negroes, in the Colonies, be compared with the former villeins of England. There are but two sorts of villeins, with whom any body pretends to liken negro slaves; namely, villeins *in gross*, and villeins *regardant*. The former, our readers know, were the personal servants of the master; the servants who performed all the menial offices about his house. When these came to be too numerous for such purposes, a part were made villeins *regardant*, or predial slaves.* And this leads us to describe the only state of slavery, with which our present system can be at all compared. Predial slaves, it is admitted on all hands, were a sort of *tenants at will*. They lived in the country; owned and occupied little pieces of ground; and, unlike the villeins *in gross*, who could be sold at any time, and to any person, they were attached to the soil, and only changed masters, when the land changed owners. There was always an implied contract between them and their masters. A contract supposes volition; volition, liberty; and, though we have to acknowledge, that, at first, there was but a very little freedom on the part of the tenant; yet, little as the heaven was, it proved sufficient, ultimately, to leaven the whole lump. By the conditions of the Feudal System, which William, the Conqueror, carried over to England, the baron and his vassals were mutually necessary to each other; the baron to the vassal, because the vassal needed the protection of his influence and head,—the vassal to the baron, because the baron needed the defence of his hands and weapons. In fact, therefore, there was about as much liberty on one side, as on the other. As civilization advanced, however, the barons quarreled with each other less than formerly; of course, required the aid of their tenants less frequently; and thus their rights of mastership became gradually extinct, for want of exercise. The rights of the vassal, in the mean time, took an inverse direction. By being attached to the soil, and by occupying a given piece of ground—which, in consequence of no interruption, on the part of the lord, went, by inheritance, from father to son—the common law at length gave them an independent title to the land; insomuch, that, by this, and several other collateral means, the English villeins, says Judge Blackstone, ‘have long ago sprouted up into copy-holders.’

We wish to impress it deeply on the minds of our readers, that it was by this natural progress of society, and not by the *Magna Charta*, or by a *charta* of any kind, that the greater part of Englishmen enjoy their present liberties. We have been so often told, how this instrument was obtained, sword in hand; how Running-Mead became immortalized thereby; and how complete a

* Millar on the British Government, p. 203.

safeguard it is to the freedom of all *Englishmen*, (with double emphasis upon the word), that we cannot let go this opportunity to give our humble opinion of its merits. It does appear to us, then, that there is no possible foundation for the rhetoric and flourish, that have been wasted on the subject; and that, if numbers are to be our criterion of judgment, the grant of King John—if it was a *magna charta* of any thing—was a *magna charta* of slavery. Through all its provisions there is a constant distinction between freemen and slaves; and the very first article declares, that it is to the former alone that the subscript liberties are conceded. ‘*Concessimus etiam omnibus liberis regni nostri pro nobis et heredibus nostris imperpetuum omnes libertates subscriptas.*’ Again, what a most abominable principle of servitude is implied in the following extract from the 4th article! It speaks of destroying and laying waste men, as if they were little superior to cabbage-stalks. ‘*Custos terre hujusmodi heredis qui intra etatem fuerit non capiat de terra heredis nisi rationabiles exitus et rationabiles consuetudines et rationabilia servitia—et hoc sine districtione et vasto hominum vel rerum.*’ Article 15th directs that, ‘*liber homo non amercietur pro parvo dilecto,*’ &c.; and that ‘*villanus eodem,*’ &c. The expression—*Nulli vendemus, nulli negabimus, aut differemus rectum vel justiam*—is often quoted by itself, as if it applied to every individual in the nation; when, in fact, nothing is more evident, from the context, than that it was meant exclusively for freemen. The sentence, which immediately precedes it, begins with the words, ‘*Nullus liber homo capiatur*’ etc.; and the words ‘*libero homini*’ were omitted after ‘*Nulli*’ in the phrase alluded to, because their expression, just before, sufficiently indicated the class of persons, to which it had reference. It is somewhat singular, that these evident recognitions of slavery should have escaped the research of all the writers on English law; and that, in particular, so cautious a commentator as Judge Blackstone should have told us, among a number of other things, how, lastly, (which alone would have merited the title that it bears, of ‘*the great charter*’) it protected *every individual* in the free enjoyment of his life, *his liberty*, and his property;* or that even Dr. Miller, whose treatise is, in many respects, so commendable, should have committed the great mistake of saying, ‘it is probable that before the time of William the Conqueror, they (the privileges of freedom) were extended to the greater part, if not the whole, of the ancient vassals.’† We certainly can find no warrant for these assertions. Vassalage of the most abject kind existed a long time after this period; and, we must think, that a great part of Englishmen no more owe their liberties to King John’s *magna charta*, than to Noah’s leather apron.

Those liberties, as we said above, are the gradual result of progressive civilization. And it yet remains to inquire, whether our

* B. iv. c. 33.

* On the Brit. Gov. p. 203.

present system of negro slavery, which is said to resemble the ancient constitution of villanage, is ever likely to arrive at the same result. We have already taken it upon us to assert, that in no important particular, is the situation of negro slaves analogous to that of ancient villeins. Is there any resemblance of a contract, express, or implied, between the master and his slaves? Did the latter exercise the least volition in becoming bondmen? Will it be pretended, that, as in the feudal system, the lord and the vassals are mutually necessary to each other? Durst the master tell us, that they are tenants at will; attached to the soil; and transferable only with the land they occupy and cultivate? On the contrary, were they not forced into their situation? Are they not considered as things paid for? And may they not be transferred,—nay, *are* they not transferred, from one plantation to another, whenever it suits the sovereign will and pleasure of the master? What chance, in the name of sense, has any negro to become a proprietor of land, either by copyhold, or by any other hold? Have they the least particle of liberty to begin with? the least spot of ground to rest the fulcrum of their lever upon? As an additional disability, has it not been found necessary to prevent masters from throwing their worthless negroes upon the community, by imposing a tax upon manumission, nearly equal, in some places, to the price of a good slave? Are not slaves distinguished, we ask, by all these additional rivets, from the ancient villeins, with whom it is so much the fashion to compare them?—Nor are these all the distinctions. Villanage took its rise in an age, when men of all classes were little better than barbarians. The master was nearly as rude as the slave; and, when the former began to advance in civilization, the latter followed on with equal pace. In our own system, however, the two orders respectively, are almost at the extremes of barbarism and civilization. The slave looks up to his master as a god; the master looks down upon his slave as a beast; and, as long as the one is in the complete power of the other, we see no probability that they will ever regard each other as any thing like equals. The slave's mere physical peculiarity of having a black skin, has grown into a moral distinction, as palpable as that between white and black.

One would think, that these distinctions are more than sufficient to disprove the similarity between villeins and negro slaves; and to make us give up all hopes for the latter, through, what the Jamaica Committee call, 'the progress of Society.' It is in vain to think of their making a 'progress,' till they have some start; and, if the masters intend to give them this start, they would have made preparation for doing so before this time. The truth is, that the whole current of their habits and of their imagined interests set against a system of liberation. The subject, we are persuaded, must be taken into other hands; and the only hands adequate to the task are those of Congress and Parliament. But there should be no precipitancy in the business. The real in-

terests of the planters should not be infringed upon; and they ought to have a full and fair hearing, before the subject be meddled with at all. The object we have in view, is, as we said before, not to deprive planters of the negro's services; but to make those services voluntary—to commute slaves into tenants, and masters into guardians. We wish the negroes to be considered as worthy of their hire; and we have no doubt, that, by adopting Christophe's plan of giving them a portion of the gross produce, they might be influenced to work quite as laboriously as they now do. Even if the present generation could not so much change their habits, as to labour from any other motive than compulsory punishment, the one which is to succeed might be prepared to do it. It is hard to teach *old* ideas how to shoot; but we may give almost any direction to young ones. We cannot pretend to give a detailed scheme for the undertaking; but we do not see why the introduction of Lancaster's System, would not accomplish a great part of the good, which we wish to do the negroes. It is certainly necessary, that they should understand the rights, which we would put into their hands; and it is quite as certain, in our own way of thinking, that the object might be accomplished, without jeopardizing the interests of their present masters. We are satisfied, at all events, that the first step, in any system, must be that of denying, that the negroes are lawfully held in their present condition.

Want of room has necessitated us to pursue this subject in too general and a desultory manner; and want of time has obliged us to throw our remarks together, with more haste than is consistent with their full and unambiguous expression. Our readers will observe, also, that a great deal of our reasoning has been directed more to the negroes in the West Indies, than to those in our own Southern States. Those who have watched the progress of the question will easily account for the fact. It is not to be disputed, that our own country set the world the example, not only in discussing the question of the slave-trade*—but in putting a stop to its prosecution. Here, however, our labours terminated; and, though there are in the United States, more than three times as many slaves, as in the British West Indies; yet the people of this country have, inversely, been thrice as neglectful of their lot, as the people of England. A coalition of able and influential men, in that country, have contrived, by means of extensive private correspondence, and by the assiduity, with which they have kept the subject in discussion, to draw before the public a complete developement of all the facts, relative to the system of West Indian slavery. It is to England, therefore, that we look for the first adoption of some wise plan to ameliorate that system. Little will probably be done, in this country; though even here, the subject is by no means entirely neglected. We ought, indeed,

* See our Number for May, p. 382—and the Memoirs of Anthony Benezet. Philadelphia. 1817.

to set the example. Our slaves are not only more numerous,—but more fecund, than those in the British Colonies; and, if measures are not taken betimes to put them in the way of peaceable emancipation, it cannot be many centuries before they will emancipate themselves—with what sort of moderation, we need not describe. In Maryland, for instance, between the times of our first and second census, the whites increased about $5\frac{1}{11}$ per cent.—the blacks, 14 per cent.; in Virginia, the whites, $6\frac{1}{10}$ per cent.—the blacks, $15\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.; in North Carolina, the whites, $11\frac{1}{10}$ per cent.—the blacks, $29\frac{1}{10}$ per cent.; in South Carolina, the whites, $9\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.—the blacks, $34\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.%;* and, in all these states, the increase of the blacks to the whites was as $24\frac{1}{3}\frac{1}{4}$ —to $9\frac{1}{11}$, not far from 3 to 1. ‘*Quâ hæc spectant?*’

As we have once or twice hinted at the doings of the African Institution, perhaps we cannot better conclude this article, than by giving a slight sketch of what we consider as the character and views of that establishment. There is no doubt, that it has been the means of striking out many new lights, and of obtaining much useful information, upon the subject of negro slavery, both in Africa, and in the West Indies: but it is as little doubtful, in our own minds, that, unless a part of its system is revolutionized, it will be the means of extensive mischief in one, if not in both, of these countries. Nothing is clearer, than that the English Parliament may do her Colonies infinite harm, by legislating upon an imperfect and partial exposition of their circumstances. By exaggerated, or false, accounts of abuses, or transgressions, a good measure by being hurried into adoption before its time; or may contain provisions for evils which do not exist, or which, if they do exist, are much less intolerable than the proposed remedy. These things had well nigh happened, in the case of the Registry Bill. Among other things, it was stated by the Reporter of the Institution, that, from 1808 to 1815, not less than 20,000 negroes had been smuggled into the British West Indies; a number, which, considering the bulk of the cargo, could never have escaped the vigilance of the navy, or of the custom-house; and yet from neither have we any accounts of even a single ship’s load being detected! It was, also, one of the prominent topics of declamation, that an idle or loitering negro was liable to be taken up and sold—even, it was said, with his deed of manumission in his hand. To this charge the colonial writers have given the lie direct; and have challenged the Institution to make it good. We have no doubt, in fine, that Parliament was induced to throw out the Bill, chiefly because the Reporter was detected in such misrepresentations and falsehoods. Indeed, we do not see how much confidence can be placed in these periodical Reports. They consist, for the most part, of statements, picked out of a voluminous cor-

* We have not included Georgia, because she was permitted to import slaves till 1808.

respondence, and mixed up with a variety of reasoning, declamation, and abuse. It is in vain to expect the whole truth from them. The Directors publish nothing, of course, which is not conformable to their own views; and, indeed, it has lately been proved, before all the world, that they have suppressed letters which were written for publication,—but which, unfortunately, did not contain ‘the information they wanted.’ The following letter, from Mr. Macaulay to Governor Ludlam, at Sierra Leone, will let our readers into the plan, which is pursued, relative to this subject. It was intended to be confidential; but like many other confidential letters, it has found its way into publication. It is printed as it was written.

‘ London, 4th Nov. 1807.

‘ MY DEAR SIR,

‘ A word in private respecting the African Institution. I cannot help regarding it as an *important engine*. We have many zealous friends in it, high in rank and influence, who, I am persuaded, are anxious to do what can be done, both for the colony and for Africa. Mr. Perceval and Mr. Canning are with us decidedly. Lord Castlereagh, with whom our business more immediately lies, is good-humoured and complying, but his Secretary,

Caret in pencil. In the margin in pencil—and Mr. Wilberforce desires me to add, disposed from a point of honour to do the utmost for the Abolitionists.

Interlineations in the original.

Words [will eagerly] defaced.

Words in italics under-scored in the original.

I fear
Mr. Cook is hostile to the whole thing

may be disposed to
and [will eagerly] seize any circumstance which will put it in his power to do us mischief.

You will see how very important it is to be aware of this in your communications with government. Indeed, in all the *ostensible* letters you write, whether to Lord Castlereagh, the African Institution, or myself, it will be right to consider the *effect* of what you say on lukewarm friends, and in the hands of

secret enemies, for such will unavoidably mix us. In such hands there are truths which will be made to produce all the effect of falsehood, and instead of being used as they ought to be, as a spur, will be employed as checks to all exertion. I cannot mean, of course, that you should, in any degree, varnish your representations. I merely mean that you should not *unnecessarily* discourage the exertions of benevolence. People who do not know you, will suppose the case to be desperate where you seem to doubt; and your testimony, if convertible to an adverse purpose, would be formidable. Your own mind will suggest to you the guards, limitations, and exceptions, with which what I now say should be received.

I have NO DOUBT that government will be disposed to adopt almost any plan which we may propose to them with respect to Africa, *provided we will but save them the trouble of thinking.* This you will see to be highly important.

*Words in small capitals
underscored with a double
line in the original.*

So far appears to be in the hand-writing of an amanuensis; the remainder in the same hand with the signature.

‘I have one remark to make which you will see to apply to much of what I have written to you by this conveyance I am not writing for myself, but for others; and am therefore obliged to propose topics of consideration to you, which, but for this circumstance, I myself might have deemed superfluous, and might have saved you the trouble of answering. But if I had time, I could give you several reasons why the same truths will do more good coming from you than from me.

I ever am, my dear sir,

Your's very truly,

Zachary Macaulay.’

Our readers may wish to hear a guess at the ‘plan’ which was to be ‘proposed with respect to Africa,’ and at the reason of its being ‘highly important’ that Parliament should be ‘saved the ‘trouble of thinking.’ The African Institution rose from the ashes of the Sierra Leone Company. It got into its hands, therefore, the management of that Colony; and it has always been ambitious of getting hold of the whole coast of Africa, for a thousand or two miles. The ultimate object was, we have no doubt, to found an empire like that of East India. We have seen some very unambiguous hints at the example of that Company: and a very still and insidious attempt to shake the West India monopoly, has not yet become a subject of English history. Year before last, a bill was brought into the House of Commons, under the head of the African Goods Bill; a title which, at first, seemed on all sides to have reference only to gold dust, ivory, dyewoods, gums, &c.; nor was it until it had been read four successive days in the House of Commons, and twice in the House of Lords, that it was discovered to permit the importation of rum, coffee, cocoa, cotton, and every other West Indian commodity—except sugar. The West India Committee took the alarm; immediately convened a meeting; drew up, and sent to the Secretary for the Colonial Department, a protest against the measure; and, on the motion of the latter, at the third reading, the Bill was rejected. Whether there was any underhanded design in this business, or not, nothing is more evident, than that hardly any active member of the Institution has lost money, by becoming a philanthropist. Men who have to serve their own interests in an undertaking are not likely to adopt the very best measures for its accomplishment; and, though we are ready to fight the good fight along with the African Institution, we must be permitted to choose our own ground, and to plant our own standard.

ART. II.—*Letters on the State of Education, and of the Press, in France.*—From the Correspondent, No. II.

To the Honourable W. L. —.

Sir,

JUSTLY observing, that as in the words of one of your philosophic poets 'the child is parent of the man,' so Education is the root of Politics, you tell me there is nothing in France, about which you so much desire to be well informed, as the state of education. I shall feel an equal honour and pleasure in conveying that information to you; but we must begin by defining what we mean by the term *education*.

The meaning of this word, like that of most words relating to similar subjects, has various degrees of extension, and some confusion may arise if we do not state its principal distinctions. In the first place, then, taken in its widest import, it comprehends all the means used in the development of the human faculties; moral, intellectual, and physical; so that, among us, a good education is that, which, in forming the heart, has cultivated the mind, and improved the qualities of the body. But we also use the word in a more limited sense, to signify merely the culture of the understanding; for it cannot be denied that the principal object of our public schools is *mental* instruction: to this all the cares of the masters and the efforts of the pupils are directed; this is the point, toward which all the motives of emulation concur; and on this depend all those brilliant rewards which are every year assigned to exertion, forming at once the encouragement of the student and the glory of the professor. The natural goodness of man is so far relied on, as to allow a presumption, that the mind, well enlightened, will prove a sufficient guide for the heart. It is expected that the examples of parents, the indirect lessons of masters, the subjects selected for lectures and compositions, the study of good authors, regularity of discipline, and religious habits especially, will be more effectual than courses of moral instructions, which might possibly fail to be interesting. Hence the disregard of those physical regulations, which the ancient Greeks and Romans deemed necessary in their constitutions, where every citizen, being necessarily destined to be a soldier, was formed to become robust ere he became intelligent. It seems probable that, among the ancients, this bodily training was the only kind of public instruction; and that all the rest was left to the discretion of individuals. Rhetoricians opened schools, which were undoubtedly sanctioned, but not paid, by the government; and with the exception of Xenophon's *Cyropædia*, and Plato's *Republic*, it may be doubted whether the ancients had any idea of what we call *Public Instruction*.

The system of education adopted generally, with some few modifications, throughout modern Europe, is that which we, after some fruitless experiments, have retained. It is founded principally on the study of the dead languages. I shall not pause to

inquire, whether this mode of instruction be attended with inconveniences, or whether a better might not be substituted. I look only on its effects; I see it practised particularly among yourselves, where it produces profound reasoners and statesmen of the first eminence. We also owe to it the illustrious period of our literature, and, as Sallust observes, '*imperium facile iisdem artibus retinetur, quibus initio partum est.*' I cannot impute blame to our predecessors; and without contemptuously rejecting the theories of innovators in education, I think they might be applied to the improvement of the existing system, but so as not to risk its entire subversion. For, doubtless, the rising generation must suffer from that fluctuation of plans and ideas, that varying succession of contradictory schemes, that rage for censuring whatever is, without the power of substituting something better. Education, above all concerns, requires constancy of method, and an uninterrupted regularity throughout all the degrees of its progress. You, more fortunate than ourselves, have made no changes; and your schools, enjoying throughout Europe a well-deserved reputation, have not, like ours, extensive ruins to repair, and chasms to fill up. Your universities still shine with the same splendour; while our re-established institutions have at once their own glory to achieve, and the glory of their predecessors to sustain: you are not, however, to suppose that the state of learning in France is so deplorable as some gloomy censors represent it, who, shocked by certain particular abuses, attack the general system, and who, indulging ancient recollections, imagine that the future ought in all particulars to resemble the past; like an unskilful physician, who should be surprised at finding his patient, on recovering from a violent fever and delirium, with less strength of body and mind than he had before. Nay further: if learning in some provinces be less prosperous than formerly, at Paris on the contrary it is understood to flourish more vigorously than ever; ampler means of instruction are afforded to youth, and better use is made of them. If, during a season of trouble, morals have been neglected, mind certainly has not. The sciences, especially, have been cultivated with care, and it would be impossible to find in all Europe, a body of professors constituted like that of the Academy of Paris. It is here that some details will be necessary; and for the sake of order, I shall arrange what I have to state to you, under the separate heads of *primary, secondary, and special instruction.*

Primary Instruction.

This charge, formerly, and even at present intrusted to religious societies, namely, the *Ignorantine Friars*, for boys, and the *Charitable Sisterhood* for girls, did not admit of very great extension for the labouring classes. Some persons, prone to indiscriminate censure, have reflected bitterly on these schools and their founders. Doubtless their means of instruction were limited, and the masters sometimes well deserve their appellation of *Ignorantines*. But what men could the villages and country towns employ in gratuitous

instruction, except those who made the vow of poverty, and were always sufficiently acquainted with it, to fulfil their modest functions? This was the best resource that then existed. But it is certainly desirable that the method of Bell and Lancaster, introduced among us, should be more and more encouraged, because it will afford a remedy for the inconveniences complained of. Its daily progress already seems to promise permanent success. From Paris, where it has received some advantageous modifications, it is extending into the departments; and is there beginning to be practised. In the capital there are now twelve schools opened, and the number of their pupils is daily augmenting. Besides the original school in the street of St. Jean de Beauvais, which receives more than four hundred children, two Protestant schools have been established in the street *des Billettes*. The Duchess of Duras has founded a school for girls in the street *de Fleurus*. There are others in different quarters; and each of these establishments has, on an average, from 1000 to 1200 pupils; so that the number of children receiving this species of instruction will soon exceed that of the children taught by the old method. You see that by perseverance this beneficial system has been brought to bear among us, and that the obstacles raised against it by prejudice and ignorance are giving way. The circumstance which tended to throw discredit on this system in the eyes of some persons, already alarmed at the idea of innovation, and perhaps possessed with the notion, that there is danger in instructing the common people, was the manner, in which it was first introduced. You may remember that it began to take effect in consequence of a decree of Buonaparte, during the hundred days. But it is to be hoped, that the advantages obviously resulting from it, will defeat the opposition, which indolence and an adherence to routine presented to its establishment. Those, indeed, are the only hindrances, to which this system of teaching is liable, now that the civil and ecclesiastical authorities concur in sanctioning it. Such, then, is the instruction destined for the common people; it consists in reading, writing, and arithmetic. I now proceed to that which offers itself to the higher classes, and which, as already stated, is founded on the study of languages. This is what I term *secondary instruction*.

Secondary Instruction.

Before the Revolution, this instruction was derived from different sources. Besides the University, several religious bodies devoted themselves to the education of youth. Among these were distinguished the Oratorians, the Doctrinaries, and some Benedictines. I make no mention of the Genovefins, and the Theatins, because they laboured, *intra privatos muros*, rather for their young proselytes than for others. Such were those bodies now so much spoken of, and the loss of which some persons, at the present day, regret, without considering, that all those houses

were rich and well endowed, and that consequently they would not now have the same means of doing good. I doubt much whether men of talent would be at present desirous of belonging to those societies, since their existence would become totally precarious, and dependent on the uncertain success of a new establishment. Besides, where are now to be found the corner-stones of those institutions, when the old members of those societies have either fallen victims to the Revolution, or are employed in the present University. During an interruption of twenty-six years, how many losses, how many changes have occurred! In 1791 the oaths then exacted, occasioned many religious houses to be closed. The others scarcely subsisted until 1793, when anarchy became predominant. This interregnum of education lasted until 1796, when the Normal School was founded, which numbered among its professors the celebrated Laharpe. This was soon succeeded by the institution of central schools; and they, in 1808, gave place to the establishment of the University. In the Central Schools, instruction was more diversified, and some further scope was given to the study of the sciences, which does not now enter into the plan of the existing classes. The concerns of instruction were superintended by a Director-general, which appointment was replaced by that of Grand-Master of the University, with a numerous train of officers. The jurisdiction of each court of appeal formed an academy, whose chief, or rector, corresponded at Paris with the Grand-Master. Houses of instruction, called Lyceums, were established, and inferior ones, denominated Colleges. Private institutions were required to frequent the public schools, and attend the lectures of professors, appointed and paid by authority. To obtain admission into them, the pupil must have previously construed Phædrus and Cornelius Nepos; he then entered into what was called the fifth class, and subsequently into the fourth, forming together the Grammatical Course; he then passed successively into the third and second, called the course of the Humanities, in order to arrive at Rhetoric. Other professors were appointed to teach Mathematics, Physics, and Philosophy. Such were the objects of the public studies. The Grand-Master and his train were superseded in 1815 by a Council of Public Instruction, with its President; and afterwards by a Provisional Committee, of five members; but no change has been made, either in the organization of houses of instruction, or in the systems of studies. They have merely suppressed the name of Lyceums, and adopted that of Royal Colleges; the other establishments are called Communal Colleges. Such is the present state of things, and we are daily expecting a law which is to determine the fate of what we call the University. I do not think it will affect the mode of instruction; but doubtless it may produce some change in the present system of centralization, and, above all, restore to the professorships somewhat of that independence which men of science cannot dispense with. It is but a slender recompense for the ardu-

ous toil which they undergo in preparing youth for their outset in public life, and providing them with the various means of entering upon the career that is opened to them. Education, as yet, exists only in outline; and the pupils have been stinted in the aids requisite for perfecting those talents which their instructors endeavoured to develop in them. These form the objects of *special instruction*.

Special Instruction.

There are schools for the Arts, but they are beyond the sphere of the University, which has five faculties or branches of special instruction; Theology, Jurisprudence, Medicine, Sciences, and Letters. In each *faculty* are opened different lectureships by eminent professors, of whom France has reason to be proud. Their lectures, attended by a multitude of amateurs, are particularly frequented by the pupils of a normal school, founded for young persons destined for professorships, and by others desirous of taking their degrees in the different faculties. These degrees are three in number; Bachelor, Licentiate, and Doctor. The Academy of Paris, solely, possesses the five faculties; the others have one, two, or three, according to their local necessities. I have to observe, that the chairs of the College of France, of the King's Garden, of oriental living languages, as also the Polytechnic school, those of bridges and roads, and of mines, are not in the jurisdiction of the University.

From this succinct and rapid view, you may perceive that the means of instruction are not wanting in France, and that education is not in such jeopardy as some persons are inclined to represent it. The tempest has raged; our vessel has been shattered; but from its wreck we have constructed another, which, with labour and time, may acquire solidity. Only let no attempt be made, while its parts are but slightly joined and imperfectly secured, to disturb it by imprudent shocks and movements, which may irrecoverably destroy it.

In thus opening the subject to you, Sir, (for I have done nothing more,) I point the way to further and more detailed research, in which, if agreeable to you, my assistance shall not be wanting. You will see that there is much curious and even important matter to be learnt respecting the ancient religious bodies, who devoted their labours (as I have above noticed) to the work of education; as well as respecting the ancient University. These subjects, by dint of becoming obsolete, if I may so speak, have again become new: I doubt not, at least, that they would be so considered in England. We have other points of curious disquisition, which having risen up and again disappeared, in the ocean of our unhappy Revolution, possess a novelty of a different kind. Such are the brief memoirs of the institution of Central Schools; and the still more curious and *piquant* history of the administration of the University, under Buonaparte. Add to this the peculiar organi-

sation of our different Colleges—the courses of study for the respective Faculties—the system of distributing prizes, and inflicting censures, when necessary, in the University—the Schools on the plans of Bell and Lancaster, or, as we call them, Schools of *Mutual Instruction*—and you will see that the whole may easily furnish matter for a long continuance of that correspondence, which you have done me the honour to solicit.

I am, Sir,

with great respect,

Your very obedient servant,
L.

To Sir W. L.——.

Dear Sir,

Paris, 1st Feb. 1817.

YOU wish to know the state of the press in France: in other words, what degree of freedom our writers enjoy. To answer this question clearly, it might seem sufficient to send you an abstract of our laws on the subject; but we have no laws. Then you will say what is the usage? Why, we have not yet any usage. Indeed, how can usage be established, in a country which has renounced all experience, in order to venture upon untried systems? Besides, a knowledge of the laws on any particular subject, is of little avail without an acquaintance with the manners of the nation for which those laws were framed. Thus, you see, your question leads to a far wider discussion, and if you would comprehend the state of the press, you must be made acquainted with the manners of the literary class in France.

The term *public opinion* is not to be found in any of the French historians prior to the reign of Louis XIII. Until that period, our literature was unformed; no one wrote on the administration of government, because the concerns of government were then very limited, and politics were a science studiously concealed from the vulgar eye. The minister of that King, our famous Cardinal de RICHELIEU, having formed the design of attacking the privileges and independence of the nobility, flattered the passions of the commonalty, and did all in his power to exalt that order. He affected to suppose that the French nation in general, entertained an opinion on state affairs, and by means of the support derived from this opinion, he endeavoured to render every thing subservient to his own will. There were some grounds for this notion; for in fact the French people really felt the want of union, steadiness, and congruity in their operations; qualities which had not existed since the death of Henry IV., not through the defect of the institutions, but through the weakness of the government.

Either from zeal for the advancement of literature, of which the Cardinal RICHELIEU, though totally devoid of taste, was a great admirer; or else from policy, and a wish to erect a sort of visible tribunal for that *public opinion* to which this minister so

frequently appealed, he associated the writers of reputation in his days, and founded the *French Academy*. In forming this association he took the members of it into regular pay, a proceeding apparently simple, but attended with important consequences, because our men of letters from that moment concluded that they were to depend on the government for subsistence, and that pensions granted by the court, were preferable to any emoluments that might arise from the independent exercise of their talents.

The nature of our legislation was conformable with these ideas. Our laws did not protect literary property. The dramatic authors were under the control and at the mercy of the players; whilst other writers were in like manner subjected to the booksellers. Our nation, in its chivalrous spirit, though enamoured of the pleasures arising from literature, imputed shame to a subsistence derived from the pen; and to make a trade of the art of writing, was to lose a portion of respectability, whatever might be the writer's talents, or however splendid his success. This will serve to explain, why the masterly productions of our literature during the age of Louis XIV. were utterly profitless to their authors. Thus the legislature, the national manners, and the prevailing prejudices, all contributed to debar them from every prospect of security against want, except such as might arise from the bounty of the government. It is not surprising, therefore, that they should become flatterers of power, and yield easily to its insinuations.

The maintenance of all those doctrines, which were in harmony with the form and spirit of the government, was at that time confided to certain religious societies, who pronounced public censure on authors whenever they deviated from the principles essential to the safety of the state. Our high courts of magistracy, to whom belonged every branch of police, even that which regarded opinions, punished the errors of writers; and though there were no special laws against the delinquencies of the press, yet, as in every civilized country, whatever is considered detrimental to established order, is in some way or other punishable, justice was executed on criminal authors, in the same manner as on criminals who were not authors. Thus, it may be said that the religious bodies denounced, and the parliament punished.

On attentively considering the history of the whole world, we shall every where perceive a distinction between *intellectual* and *material* power. To govern bodies and to govern minds have almost always been considered as two distinct things; and it would not be difficult to prove that nations have been more agitated by the pretensions of those who wished to influence the mind, than by those who confined their aims to the subjection of the person. This idea suggests a thousand curious reflections. I merely throw out for your consideration, and proceed with my survey. It is now generally allowed, that the main spring of *representative governments*, is public opinion; but public opinion I regard as nothing more than the triumph of intellect over force. In this point of

view, it is not to be imagined that the liberty of the press, can ever become questionable, in countries where the interests of the state are discussed in large assemblies, and where the deliberations of those assemblies are public. Indeed the very question would suppose an alarming inconsistency; but of this inconsistency we have just given another example; for in France we do not appear to take any interest in the establishment of a principle except for the pleasure of violating it in all its consequences.

The privilege of directing men's minds may sometimes belong to the passions, but never to ignorance, and those, who in the present day blame the monastic orders for having possessed themselves of that privilege, do nothing more than reproach them with having had greater talents and acquirements than the rest of their contemporaries. Had there been only one monastic order in Europe, I think it would have been impossible to take from that order what I call the *intellectual supremacy*; but when several such orders arose, there sprung up a rivalry among them; they contended for this power, which is certainly the greatest, and that which has most charms for exalted minds. What, indeed, can be more attractive than the idea of gaining the ascendancy of the age by dint of mental power alone? What other end does a man of letters propose to himself? Honoured be those writers who, on questions of public interest, sacrifice every personal consideration to the pleasure of meditating on the general welfare!

The Jesuits in France were in quiet possession of the right of directing the public mind, when the Jansenists attacked them for the purpose of wresting from them this high privilege. This was the real ground of the quarrel between these two bodies; theological disputes were merely the mode in which it was carried on. The Jesuits preached a lax morality in order to ensure a majority in their favour: the Jansenists, to make a striking impression and produce a strong contrast, propagated a system of morals at once gloomy and severe; but we may rest assured that if they had found the Jesuits maintaining their influence over the public mind by means of strict principles, they would have sought popularity by propounding milder doctrines. Is not this generally the case, at the present day, in deliberative assemblies, when the parties opposed to each other, consider contrary doctrines merely in relation to the means which they afforded for obtaining the direction of public affairs?

It is here that we meet with a singular result of the creation of the French Academy; a result, certainly, not foreseen by Cardinal Richelieu, one of the most despotic of men in principle and disposition.

Whilst the Jesuits and the Jansenists contended for the privilege of directing the public mind, the men of letters who swayed the French Academy, formed an association under the name of *Philosophers*. Serving both parties in turn, for the sake of inflaming the quarrel, and alternately satirizing them both, in order to ex-

pose them to equal ridicule, they at last overthrew them both, and occupied their place. 'We have driven out the foxes,' wrote Voltaire confidentially to his disciples, 'and now we must hunt the wolves.' The foxes were the Jesuits, the wolves were the Jansenists; and though M. de Voltaire beheld in both of them the enemies of that supremacy over the public mind at which he was aiming, it is easy to perceive, by the different names which he gave them, that he still retained a tender recollection of the Jesuits, among whom he had been educated, and whose amiable and lively manners he loved, as much as he detested the rudeness and rigour of the Jansenists.

The former being ousted, and the latter overthrown, the men of letters in France, and all those whom they had admitted into their *philosophical* fraternity, ruled the nation, the Court, and even a great portion of Europe. As it had been necessary for them to propagate new doctrines in order to rouse the public mind, they were desirous of developing all the consequences of those doctrines in order to perpetuate their power. These consequences, rigorously uniform in their progress, placed the government in the hands of the populace in 1793; and the excesses of the populace paved the way for Bonaparte's usurpation. Thus the domination of force over the ascendancy of intellect was again re-established in two different ways. Such is the circle in which human nature moves; and if there be any means of giving a legal organ to public opinion in order to ensure its triumph, those means can only consist in the adoption of a *representative government*, by which we Frenchmen generally mean the form of government so long and so happily established in England.

What the men of letters had received as a boon under Cardinal Richelieu and Louis XIV. they imperiously demanded when they had gained the ascendancy toward the close of Louis XV.'s reign; always asking, always complaining, and always threatening, it is impossible to say what was lavished upon them, and whether their cupidity did not even exceed their ambition. Secretaryships for military bodies were created for them with considerable salaries; places were multiplied for them in all the establishments dedicated to literature, science, and the arts; they had apartments in the Louvre, the finest of our royal palaces; and as it had become customary for every writer to be paid by the government, the better they were paid, the more their numbers increased. They were insolent and factious; but not one of them was independent except *J. J. Rousseau*, who, not being a native of France, set some value on his liberty; and in consequence he was the only one among the literati of that time who was really popular.

Bonaparte, eager to take the lead in every thing, had one measure of universal application; it was that of forming men into regiments. Thus he made a regiment of men of letters, [*savans*,] and artists; he gave them an uniform, a sword, and other ridiculous equipments, and this regiment was called the *Institute*. Dis-

satisfied with being held in subjection, but cowardly and ever ready to side with the victor, the members of the Institute knew not whether they were to consider themselves as a part of the state, or simply as a learned society; for the servants of government among them, who were strangers to literature and science, were more numerous than the men of letters; and all the men of letters and scientific persons of any merit were made servants of government by Bonaparte. This strange combination is not one of the least skilful contrivances of that man, who perfectly understood the vices of his age, who would allow no liberty except to himself, and who was more ambitious of governing minds than bodies.

If the foundation of the French Academy by Cardinal Richelieu gave birth to a general notion that every writer in France ought to subsist on the bounty of the government, the establishment of the Institute by Bonaparte in like manner propagated the idea now so prevalent, that the cultivation of literature, science, and the arts is not to be regarded as an end, but simply as a means of getting into place; and since books, dramas, and articles in the journals are written only with a view to obtain one or more situations under government, when that purpose is answered, nothing more is done unless the situation be such as to require its holder to write in favour of those by whom he is paid. Again, who are those that pay? Formerly it was the King. In our way of thinking every favour from the King is honourable. Gods and sovereigns are the only beings, it seems, to whom men may confide their wants without blushing. Accordingly, nothing is more noble and more decorous than the letters written by Colbert to the men of merit in his time, announcing the favours granted to them by Louis XIV. Bonaparte, on the contrary, whose aim was to degrade human nature, assigned the duty of pensioning the men of letters to the police! Thus was established the custom which still continues. From the sacrifice of independence, we have proceeded to the disregard of delicacy. Such is in the natural course of events; but money compensates for every thing, in cases where it does not create an obligation, or even excite gratitude. Posterity has become fully acquainted with the pensions granted by Louis XIV. to men of letters; the modern police acts with greater mystery; for the most of its pensioners are not even known to the literary world.

Having thus seen how the characteristic manners of our writers, have been formed, having considered their habits and pretensions, and being able to appreciate their expedients for obtaining or extorting money from the government, you may compare the existing state of these matters in England, with that in France; you will then easily comprehend the details which I have to give you concerning the state of the press in the latter country; in what respects it differs from the freedom enjoyed by you, and what may be the obstacles to its improvement. But there is another observation for

me to make, which is not without importance in the question before us.

In England, as the government does not undertake to provide for men of letters, philosophers, and artists, the rich and enlightened classes of your nation consider themselves as not exempted from all concern respecting them. For a different reason, the French nation, which has the reputation of being devoted to literature, sciences, and arts, does nothing for those who cultivate them; it leaves them to the care of the government. In your country, a writer of talent and reputation may open a subscription for a work; and it is soon filled up. During the time of the emigration, several French authors adopted this expedient, and met with the same liberality which is exercised toward your countrymen. If one of your political writers join the party either of ministry or of opposition, if he remain faithful to the cause he has embraced, and if his writings appear decisive and convincing, he is sure not to be abandoned. This is not the case in France. Opinions are there so variable that no value is attached to any except the opinion of the day. If a writer enjoying the greatest share of public favour were to sustain a misfortune he would be blamed, and if he were reduced to open a subscription for a literary work, as a mode in which relief might be honourably afforded him, he would not only be unsuccessful, but I can affirm that the public would begin to doubt his talents. Opinions are not sufficiently settled among us, to become a bond of fraternity; and the interests of public liberty never elevate men's minds above the minor proprieties of social life. Your nation is conscious of being charged with the compensation of service and merit of all kinds; we are not conscious of this, because all our habits have tended to prevent us from feeling such a duty. Our minds are therefore not so independent, and consequently the government has less difficulty in establishing the restrictions, which it may require against the development and exercise of the intellectual faculties, the fairest endowment of man, and the only one, which can successfully contend against force in favour of liberty.

If you are convinced that public liberty is never sufficiently secured by the laws, when it is not guaranteed by the national manners, you will perceive that nothing in France is more unprotected than the present and future state of the liberty of the press, since the manners of our writers are servile; and our politicians never find in the past, the measure of those sacrifices that are demanded from them in the name of the general safety. Ever under the dominion of ancient habits, they give up every thing which is demanded in the name of the royal power; because the royal power formerly left us nothing of our own. Certainly in a nation which had long been accustomed to discuss its own interests, to defend its liberties, and which had not witnessed the origin and sudden death of more than twenty constitutions, a minister would not dare publicly to say, 'You are not wise enough to enjoy the

'liberties granted to you by the fundamental laws of the state; I alone am wise; place therefore the liberty of each individual at my disposal, and you shall see that I will make a better use of it for all, than each would for himself. Let the liberty of the press also be at my disposal; let every one be silent; let me alone speak, and you shall be convinced that I am more in the right than all of you.' In every country where such language could be held, its success would be certain; for if the manners of the people were not such as to suffer them to listen to such a proposal without laughter, not even a fool would attempt to make it. The moment it was hazarded, the greatest obstacle to its success would be surmounted. This has taken place before our own eyes ten times in the course of twenty-seven years; we have again witnessed it very recently, and it has succeeded, among those who had a right to discuss the question. Beyond the walls of the chambers indeed I do not think that the same opinion prevails concerning this very important subject. So long as we are without regular and lawful liberty, we shall have liberty by fits and explosions which is the worst of all its forms: hence I fear our politicians may be compared to engineers who, having charged their cannon with powder, should say that they only put in grape-shot and wadding to prevent the powder from taking fire; but they forget that it is not at the cannon's mouth that the fire is applied. The liberty of the press is an article of our constitution; certain temporary laws are used with it, as wadding (we are told) to prevent it from enflaming the public mind; but there will still be a sufficient opening for the fire to be communicated, and the detonation will be the more violent in proportion to the force of the constraint.

On the first return of the King a law was made against the liberty of the press, that is to say, against the public journals, and against books containing fewer than twenty printed sheets. This law was made in concurrence with the two chambers. The journals thus compressed by the hand of authority, could not defend the power which coerced them: on the contrary, one might have supposed that the restrictions had been contrived for the sole purpose of preventing the King and his ministers from obtaining any knowledge of the conspiracies then carrying on, for the purpose of bringing back Bonaparte or the Republic, for both those schemes were in agitation. Restrictive laws are fatal in consequence of their tendency to discourage the well disposed, who always feel less repugnance in obeying a law than in evading it, even when they deem it a bad one; whilst artful men turn and twist the law so many ways, that they at length find means to elude its provisions. So it happened in the present instance; the loyal writers had not time for the composition of publications of temporary interest exceeding twenty printed sheets; whilst the Jacobins, formed volumes of twenty-one sheets; and they would have contrived others of fifty, in order to keep clear of the law.

In consequence, the latter became masters of the field almost before the battle had begun. This strange legislative combination fully exposed the futility of the minds which conceived it; and was favourable only to the factious. Such was, and such must always be, the event in similar circumstances.

On the second return of the King, it was unfortunately imagined that the restrictive law had not been made for the general interest of society, but for the particular interest of the King; for the King alone in part reformed what had been done; and could not have been done without the concurrence of the chambers. His ordinance left the journals under the control of the police; and books, of whatever size, were exempted from all ministerial censorship provided they were not *periodical*; thus the *Correspondent* could not be translated into French, nor orders received for supplying it, without the permission of the police and a previous censorship, simply because it is *periodical*, that is to say, published at stated seasons, fixed upon and notified before hand. The law is so inconsistent that it apprehends danger from the circulation of a book which appears only every two months, yet foresees no danger in the publication of the same book if it appear twelve times in the course of a year, at periods not previously determined, because in that case it would not be periodical. You will begin to doubt whether we are in our senses, when we take these precautions against a book, because it is announced on the 1st of January for the whole year, while we are without any legal provision against other works, which may be published without any previous annunciation. Let me undeceive you; nothing can be wiser; and be assured that when ministers propose laws, they have made every arrangement to avoid being annoyed by them. This belongs to their station; it will be for the chambers to inquire whether the nation shall remain as free as the ministers. The police, having the control of all the journals, can prevent them from announcing works, which it is disposed to restrain from circulation; it can assail the authors, expose their books, to the laughter of fools, and injure their sale by other means that are at its disposal, and this so effectually, that a printed work shall be as little known as if the author had kept it by him in manuscript. On the contrary, a work appearing at fixed periods, and having regular subscribers, might circulate in spite of the journals, and would meet with striking success if conducted with talent and on sound principles. A periodical work might therefore obtain a greater ascendancy over public opinion than the works of all the writers in the pay of the police; this is what they will not allow. It would disturb the union of the *intellectual* and *material* power. The whole, then, that we have hitherto gained by a representative government, is that the laws guarantee the ascendancy derived from intellect, to those who have none, against those who possess that faculty. Under the ancient order of things such a combination could not have been conceived; and if the

direction of the public mind was engrossed by the monastic orders, it was because they were at that time the sole depositaries of every science. It was reserved for what has been called an enlightened age to show us that the law recognises every science to be the privilege of one man when he is minister of police. Do not laugh at us, but pity us; for every nation that has been misled from her ancient paths is for a long time to be pitied.

That which was regulated by an ordinance of the King on his second return has been confirmed by the present Chamber of Deputies and is now before the Chamber of Peers. If the Chamber of Peers should also adopt it, which they probably will do, the state of our laws regarding the press will be an apparent liberty for books, an avowed control over journals and periodical works. Now take our national manners into the account, and you will find that this state of things, which would be insupportable in England will scarcely be felt in France, where political liberty is a matter of only secondary concern, where every one has his own little private interest to promote, and with which he is exclusively occupied. Our writers aim not at independence of feeling; they aim at places and money; every thing is arranged with that view, and what is not yet so arranged, will be in a short time. As there is much less resistance in our manners, than warmth in our minds, recourse is rarely had to violent measures of control. The ministers are but little provoked by an attack; and those who are opposed by the ministers are also good-natured people who feel no sort of rancour because they feel as little conviction. And how should there be any in a nation where doctrines are all uncertain and vacillate between remembrances of the past, and pretensions newly asserted. If we really loved public liberty, the case would be different; for the sake of a mighty interest the passions would take a loftier tone; but that is out of the question.

Do not conclude, however, that we are in love with despotism; our manners are too variable to yield to it; indeed we have no faith in it. Having for these twenty-seven years been accustomed to dwell on the events of to-morrow, what passes to-day never engages our thoughts; they are fixed only on what will come or what may come. How is it possible for a people, incessantly changing their constitutions and laws, living only on exceptions, and in a continual succession of ordinances, to attach themselves to any thing? The royal charter had given us the liberty of the press: it was quite natural for a Frenchman to expect that the laws would take it away. In fact, a law has taken it away; it is quite natural for a Frenchman to look for some circumstance that will restore it to us. The same may be said of personal liberty; if the constitution had not guaranteed it to us, you would have heard of great debates for obtaining it; but as we have it by the constitution, great debates have been held to deprive us of it. In short, my dear sir, a single reflection will suffice to show the difference between your English ideas relative to the press, and the notions

which prevail on the same subject with us in France. You will probably admit, that if your ministry were to propose that all the public journals should be placed at their disposal, and under their control, the whole English people would deem it an attack on one of their most important privileges. Well, sir, let us suppose the same proposal made in France, and you would scarcely meet a person who would think the question regarded any body but the Journalists. With this brief remark, which, I assure you, is not intended for sarcasm, but for simple, historical truth,

I remain very truly yours,

F.

ART. III.—*An Account of the Natives of the Tonga Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean; with an original Grammar and Vocabulary of their Language. Compiled and arranged from the extensive Communications of Mr. WM. MARINER, several years resident in those Islands; by JOHN MARTIN, M. D.* 2 vols. royal 8vo. pp. 460—412. London, Murray, 1817.—From the Critical Review.

TO no single individual is the science of geography more indebted than to the late Captain Cook, who fell a sacrifice to the ignorance or ferocity of the barbarous regions he explored. In his first voyage the Society Isles were discovered by him; the insularity of New Zealand was ascertained, when the streights which separated the two component parts were distinguished by his name; and in the same voyage he explored the coast of New Holland through an extent of two thousand miles. In his second voyage he was enabled to negative the conjecture with regard to a southern continent within the reach of navigation; he added New Caledonia to our charts, the largest island in the South Pacific, New Zealand excepted; and also Georgia, in the latitude of Cape Horn, with an unknown coast that he called Sandwich Land, and which has been denominated the Ultima Thule of the southern hemisphere.

In his third voyage he revisited the Friendly Islands, discovered several smaller clusters on the tropic of Capricorn, and the Sandwich Islands to the north of the equinoctial line; he explored the western coast of America from 43 to 70 degrees of north latitude; he determined the proximity of Asia to that continent; and passing the streights between them, demonstrated the impracticability of a northern passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

In consequence of these important discoveries, the hydrography of the habitable globe may be said to have been completed, with the exception of the Sea of Amur and the Japanese Archipelago; so that little remains for future navigators but to furnish us with more minute accounts of the situations he had examined, and this purpose with respect to the Friendly, or Tonga Islands, is performed in a very able and interesting manner by the author of the account before us, assisted as he was by his professional editor.

Before we enter on the narrative here given, it may be convenient to supply some few dates as to the visitants of these islands, since the last voyage of Captain Cook in 1777, and especially as in the geographical illustrations the work before us is very deficient.

Four years subsequent to 1777, Maurielle, a Spaniard, was entangled among these islands; and 1789, Lieutenant Bligh, in the *Bounty*, anchored at Anamooka, one of the cluster of the Hapai Islands, Captain Perouse having approached them in 1787. Captain Edwards twice visited Anamooka in 1791, which was the appointed place for rendezvous with the schooner that had attended him from Otaheite, and which had lost company with the *Random*. Bligh again in the *Providence*, and Captain Pollock in the *Assistance*, returning with bread fruit from Otaheite, remained during the night of August 3d, 1792 off these islands. The whole group is in number computed at 150, but only 61 of these have their places and proper situations assigned in the chart, and in the sketch of the harbour of Tongataboo attached to the *Voyages of Captain Cook*.

We do not very well understand why confusion should be introduced into the geography of the immense tract of the Pacific, by the substitution of the name of Tonga for the Friendly Islands, merely because the chart of Captain Cook did not comprehend, *ex nomine*, Vavaoo; and if the same liberty were taken with this sort of nomenclature as to the other places in the like sea which were visited by that distinguished victim of useful and daring enterprise, such difficulties would be occasioned to the inquirer, that it might be necessary to devote a long life to remove the needless obstacles which caprice, or some other intrusive motive, would occasion. In the present instance, we do not entirely attribute the variation to whim or fancy, but we rather ascribe it to a disposition to communicate a novel appearance to the work, in order that it may be more attractive to the general class of readers. The Friendly Islands have been mentioned so frequently since 1773, that it might be thought, if not by the author or editor, by some trading adviser, that an account of the Tonga Islands would be supposed to be the relation of a new discovery, which had hitherto eluded the vigilance of all former adventurers, and which deception would at least continue until the book itself were procured, the first page of which must, however, remove the misapprehension.

The Tonga Islands comprehend, Tonga, a cluster called the Hapai Islands, and Vavaoo. Those who have consulted the Dutch voyagers will know three of them under the appellations of Amsterdam, Middleburg, and Rotterdam; in the neighbourhood of which last are a great number of other islands of much smaller dimensions. Amsterdam had also the native distinction of Tongataboo, or Sacred Tonga; tabu, or taboo, denoting sacred or prohibited.

Dr. Martin explains the circumstances which led him to afford his valuable assistance to the present work in the following manner:—

‘In the year 1811, I accidentally heard that Mr. William Mariner, the bearer of a letter from the East Indies to one of my connections in London, had been a resident at the Friendly Islands during the space of four years, and my curiosity being strongly excited, I solicited his acquaintance. In the course of three or four interviews I discovered, with much satisfaction, that the information he was able to communicate respecting the people with whom he had been so long and so intimately associated, was very far superior to, and much more extensive than any thing that had yet appeared before the public. His answers to several inquiries, in regard to their religion, government, and habits of life, were given with that kind of unassuming confidence, which bespeaks a thorough intimacy with the subject, and carries with it the conviction of truth:—in fact, having been thrown upon those islands at an early age, his young and flexible mind had so accorded itself with the habits and circumstance of the natives, that he evinced no disposition to overrate or to embellish what to him was neither strange nor new. To my inquiries respecting his intentions of publishing, he replied, that having necessarily been for several years, out of the habit either of writing or reading, or of that turn of thinking requisite for composition and arrangement, he was apprehensive his endeavours would fail in doing that justice to the work which I seemed to think its importance demanded: he modestly proposed, however, to submit the subject to my consideration for a future opportunity. In the mean while circumstances called him away to the West Indies: on his return he brought me memoranda of the principal events at the Tonga Islands, in the order in which they had happened during his residence there, together with a description of the most important religious ceremonies, and a vocabulary of about four or five hundred words. The inspection of these materials served greatly to increase the interest which I had already taken in the matter, and I urged the necessity of committing the whole to paper while every thing remained fresh in his memory. To facilitate this object, I proposed to undertake the composition and arrangement of the intended work, whilst Mr. Mariner should direct his view solely to noting down all that he had seen and heard in the order in which his memory might spontaneously furnish it, that these materials might afterwards be made, from time to time, subjects of conversation, strict scrutiny, amplification, arrangement and composition; consequently not one of the ensuing pages has been written without Mr. Mariner’s presence, that he might be consulted in regard to every little circumstance or observation that could in the smallest degree affect the truth of the subject under consideration; and, in this way, it is presumed that a great deal more useful and interesting matter has been elicited, than would probably have occurred to him through the medium of his own unassisted reflections; for conversation calls to mind many things that would otherwise have escaped the memory; it constantly demands elucidations; one idea gives birth to another, until the whole subject lies completely unfolded to the mind.’ (p. vi.—ix.)

The arrangement of the work may be briefly stated. It commences with the voyage of the ship *Port au Prince*, in which Mr.

Mariner was conveyed to the Tonga Islands; next follows an historical account of what occurred during his stay for about four years at those islands, including not only what regarded himself, but the different changes, religious and political; and the recital being thus brought down to the departure of Mr. Mariner, the remaining chapters are devoted to an orderly statement of the condition of society; the ranks and professions; the names and attributes of the gods; the notions entertained of the human soul and a future life; the most important ceremonies; the games and amusements; the music, vocal and instrumental; the state of pharmacy; of arts and manufactures; and lastly, is supplied a grammar of the language, and a vocabulary comprehending two thousand words.

This insight into the dialect of the people we consider to be the most valuable, although not the most entertaining part of the work. Captain Cook observes, that the language of the Friendly Islands is sufficiently copious to express all the ideas of the people; and that he had many proofs of its applicability to musical purposes, both in song and recitative. The language may likewise be considered as the master-key to all that may be acquired in the neighbouring situations, as on the like authority we learn that this tongue has the greatest affinity imaginable to that of New Zealand, of Wateoo, and Mangena, and consequently to that of Otaheite and the Society Isles. Many of the words are also the same as those spoken at Coco's Island, as appears by the vocabulary collected by Le Maire and Schouten. Some of the terms of Horn Island, another of the discoveries of Schouten, also belong to the language of Tongatabatoo.

Those who look for much information in these volumes on natural history and philosophy, particularly in the departments of botany, zoology, and mineralogy, will infallibly be disappointed; but the moralist, who loves to examine human nature in that middle state, between the solemn gravity of savage and the affected levity of polished life, will find this interesting situation faithfully depicted, with all that relates to the arts, the customs, the religion, the government, and whatever is peculiar to man in this stage of social cultivation; and under such a view, we confidently recommend it to the attentive examination of our readers.

The voyage commenced from Gravesend, in the Port au Prince, on the 12th Feb. 1805, and after a variety of the ordinary adventures, on Saturday, 29th Nov. 1806, she brought to on the north-west point of Lefooga, one of the Hapai Islands, in the same place where Captain Cook had formerly anchored. In this situation several of the crew mutinied, and were killed on shore by the natives. On the 1st of December, the islanders took possession of the ship; and Mr. Mariner, after being exposed to very great danger, was landed in a canoe. He was conducted into the presence of Finow, the king of the island, who fortunately took a particular fancy to him. The ship was subsequently run aground and plundered by Finow's orders; and in the evening of the 9th

December the natives set fire to her, in order the more conveniently to get at the iron work, which was highly valued by them. The next day, at sun-rise, the people flocked to the beach, and some of the crew, under the direction of Mr. Mariner, conveyed five of the carronades on shore.

After a shooting excursion with the King to the neighbouring island of Whiha, he and Mr. Mariner returned to Lefooga. Our adventurer was now required to surrender his books and papers, which he learnt afterwards were burnt; and on inquiring the reason, he was told (as he afterwards understood) that his Majesty could not on any account allow him to practice witchcraft to the injury of the Tonga people; and that it was well known to the King, that those books and papers were instruments and means of invocation, to bring down some evil or plague upon the country. Mr. Mariner and his companions, who were reduced to the number of five, (the rest either being killed or dispersed on the adjacent islands,) began soon to be tired of their way of life; and endeavoured to procure from the King the gift of a canoe, that they might rig it as a sloop, and make Norfolk Island, on their voyage to New Holland. Their purpose, however, was disappointed.

The history of a revolution which took place is next given. At the time of Captain Cook's visit, the whole of Tonga (that is, the island of Tonga, the Hapai Islands, and Vavaoo) was under the dominion of Tongoo Ahoo; but in consequence of this change, the island of Tonga had been for ten or twelve years, divided into several petty states, all at war with one another; Finow being then King of the Hapai Islands and Vavaoo, and Tooboo Neuha tributary chief of the latter.

The death of Finow occurred after an entertainment. His illness began with a difficulty of respiration, his lips became purple, and his under jaw was convulsed. His friends finding he did not get better, procured one of his children to sacrifice it to the gods, that the divine anger might be appeased, and the health of the father restored. They found the child in a neighbouring house, sleeping in its mother's lap; they snatched it away by force, and retiring, they strangled it with a band of gnatoow.* The corpse was then taken with all speed before two consecrated houses and a grave; at each place a short prayer to the god was hurried over, that he might interpose with the other deities in the behalf of Finow, and accept of this sacrifice as an atonement for his crimes.

The appearance and character of the deceased King, with whom Mr. Mariner was an almost constant associate, will interest the reader.

Finow, the sole and arbitrary monarch of Vavaoo and the Hapai Islands, was in stature six feet two inches; in bulk and strength, stout and muscular; his head erect and bold; his shoulders broad and well made; his limbs well set, strong, and graceful in action; his body not

* A substance used for clothing, prepared from the bark of the Chinese paper-mulberry tree.

corpulent, but muscular; his hair of a jet black, and curly, yet agreeably so, without being woolly; his forehead remarkably high; his brow bold and intelligent, with a little austerity; his eye large and penetrating, yet joined to an expression of mildness; his nose aquiline and large, his lips well made and expressive; his teeth remarkably large, white, and regular; his lower jaw rather prominent; his cheek-bones also rather prominent, compared with those of Europeans.—All his features were well developed, and declared a strong and energetic mind, with that sort of intellectual expression, which belongs not so much to the sage as to the warlike chieftain: ambition sat high on his front, and guided all his energies: his deep and penetrating eye, and his firm and masculine deportment, while they inspired his adherents with confidence, struck awe to the minds of conspirators:—his actions were, for the most part, steady and determined, and directed to some well-studied purpose: his resolve was fate, and those who obeyed him with reluctance trembled, not without reason. He appeared, almost constantly, in deep thought, and did not often smile;—when he spoke, on matters of some importance, it was not without first holding up the balance in his mind, to weigh well what he had to say: persuasion hung upon his lip, and the flow of his eloquence was such, that many of his enemies were afraid to listen to him, lest they should be led to view the subject in a light prejudicial to their interests.

‘Although, in matters of consequence, he always seemed to weigh well what he had to say, in subjects of minor importance he was very quick in reply: his voice was loud, not harsh but mellow, and his pronunciation remarkably distinct. When he laughed, which was not on trifling occasions, it was so loud as to be heard at an incredible distance; and with a very strange noise preceding it, as if he were hallooing after somebody a long way off, and the same kind of noise as he always made when in a passion; and this was peculiar to him. When in his house, however, giving orders about his domestic arrangements, his voice was uncommonly mild, and very low.

‘In regard to his sentiments of religion and policy, they may be pretty well gathered from sundry passages in the narrative:—with respect to his religion in particular, it is difficult to say whether he had any: it is certain that he disbelieved most of the doctrines taught by the priests; for although he believed that they were really inspired, when they pretended to be so, yet he thought that frequently a great deal of what they declared to be the sentiments of the god, was their own invention; and this particularly in regard to what did not suit his own sentiments. He never, however, declared his opinion of these things in public; though he expressed them very decidedly to Mr. Mariner, and some of his intimate friends. He used to say, that the gods would always favour that party in war in which there were the greatest chiefs and warriors. He did not believe that the gods paid much attention in other respects to the affairs of mankind; nor did he think they could have any reason for doing so,—no more than man could have any reason or interest in attending to the affairs of the gods. He believed in the doctrine of a future state, agreeably to the notions entertained by his countrymen; that is, that chiefs and matabooles, having souls, exist hereafter in Bolotoo, according to their rank in this world; but that the common people, having no souls, or those only

that die with their bodies, are without any hope of a future existence. (p. 429—432, vol. i.)

He was succeeded by his son, a man whose intellect was of a very superior kind, and who, unlike his father, was void of political ambition, and sought rather the happiness of his people than the extension of his power. He was an admirer of the arts, and a philosopher among savages.

Mr. Mariner now began to be very solicitous to return to his native country in a time of peace, when he had nothing on which to employ himself but objects of amusement. Sometimes with Finow the younger, or with the Chiefs, and sometimes alone, by way of recreation, he would frequently go, for two or three days together, among the neighbouring islands on fishing excursions; as he was one evening returning homeward in his canoe, he espied a sail in the westward horizon, just as the sun had descended below it. He was then with three servants that worked on his plantation, and he insisted that they should make for the vessel. They admitted that they had seen her before, but that their fear of his wishing to go on board prevented them from pointing her out to him; as they had often heard their chiefs say that they never meant to let him go if they could help it, and these attendants were apprehensive that their brains would be knocked out if they suffered him to escape. It was not until one of the men was killed by Mariner that he could succeed in approaching the vessel, which he reached about day-light the next morning. The brig proved to be the Favourite, Captain Fiske, from Port Jackson, of about 130 tons burthen. Mr. Mariner was received, and from on board sent an invitation to the King, when Finow, with his sister and several of her female attendants, visited him, bringing presents of provisions; and so delighted was his Majesty with every thing he saw in the ship, and so desirous was he of acquiring those accomplishments which raised Europeans so much above the Tonga people, that he was with difficulty dissuaded from accompanying Mr. Mariner to Europe.

‘Finow’s sister, who was a very beautiful, lively girl, proposed in joke to go to England, and see the white women: she asked if they would allow her to wear the Tonga dress; ‘though, perhaps,’ she said, ‘that would not do in such a cold country in the winter season. I don’t know what I should do at that time: but Togi tells me that you have hot-houses for plants from warm climates, so I should like to live all winter in a hot-house. Could I bathe there two or three times a day without being seen? I wonder whether I should stand a chance of getting a husband; but my skin is so brown, I suppose none of the young *fapalangt* men would have me; and it would be a great pity to leave so many handsome young chiefs at Vavaoo, and go to England to live a single life.—If I were to go to England, I would amass a great quantity of beads, and then I should like to return to Tonga, because in England beads are so common that nobody would admire me for wearing them, and I should not have the pleasure of being envied.’—She said, laughing, that either the white men must make very kind

and good-tempered husbands, or else the white women must have very little spirit, for them to live so long together without parting. She thought the custom of having only one wife a very good one, provided the husband loved her; if not, it was a very bad one, because he would tyrannize over her the more, whereas if his attention was divided between five or six, and he did not behave kindly towards them, it would be very easy to deceive him.' (p. 32—34, vol. ii.)

'Before the ship's departure, Mr. Mariner was charged with several messages from the chiefs of Vavaoo to those of Hapai. Among others, Finow sent his strong recommendations to Toobo Toa to be contented with the Hapai Islands, and not to think of invading Vavaoo; to stay and look to the prosperity of his own dominions, for that was the way to preserve peace and happiness.—'Tell him again,' said he, 'that the best way to make a country powerful and strong against all enemies, is to cultivate it well, for then the people have something worth fighting for, and will defend it with invincible bravery: I have adopted this plan, and his attempts upon Vavaoo will be in vain!' (p. 34, vol. ii.)

The civil ranks of society in the Tonga Islands may be divided into. How, or King, Egi, or Nobles, Matabooles, Mooas and Tooas. The King is an arbitrary monarch, and his influence over the people is derived from hereditary right, the supposed protection of the gods, his reputation as a warrior, and lastly but principally, from the number and strength of his fighting men. The Egi are those persons who are related to the divine family of Tooitonga and Veachi, or to the royal House, and in point of rank, the former are considered to be superior to the latter, and even the King himself is allowed the priority only in power. The Matabooles are a sort of honourable attendants upon the chiefs, and are their companions and counsellors. They are more or less regarded according to the rank of the chief to whom they are attached, and they have the management of all ceremonies. The Mooas are either the brothers, or descendants of Matabooles. This order has much to do in assisting at the public ceremonies. Like the Matabooles they form part of the retinue of chiefs, and most of them are professors of some art. The Tooas, who till the ground, compose the bulk and the lowest order of the people. Some of them are employed occasionally in performing the tattow, club-carving, shaving, and according to their abilities in other duties, for the discharge of which they meet with encouragement by presents. Of the attention paid to age, sex, and infancy, we have the following particulars.

'Old persons of both sexes are highly revered on account of their age and experience, in so much that it constitutes a branch of their first moral and religious duty, viz. to reverence the gods, the chiefs, and aged persons; and consequently there is hardly any instance in these islands of old age being wantonly insulted.

'Women have considerable respect shown to them on account of their sex, independent of the rank they might otherwise hold as nobles. They are considered to contribute much to the comforts and domestic happiness of the other sex, and as they are the weaker of the two, it is thought unmanly not to show them attention and kind regard; they are

therefore not subjected to hard labour or any very menial work. Those that are nobles rank like the men according to the superiority of their relationship. If a woman not a noble is the wife or daughter of a mataboole, she ranks as a mataboole; if she be a noble, she is superior in rank to him, and so are the children male and female; but in domestic matters she submits entirely to his arrangements; notwithstanding this, however, she never loses the respect from her husband due to her rank, that is to say, he is obliged to perform the ceremony of *mo'ë-mo'ë* (touching the feet) before he can feed himself. If the husband and wife are both nobles of equal rank, the ceremony of *mo'ë-mo'ë* is dispensed with; but where there is any difference the inferior must perform this ceremony to be freed from the taboo (the offence of taking what is prohibited.) If a woman marries a man higher in rank than herself, she always derives additional respect on that account; but a man having a wife who is a greater noble than himself acquires no additional respect from this source, but he has the advantage of her larger property.

'It is a custom in the Tonga islands for women to be what they call mothers to children or grown up young persons who are not their own, for the purpose of providing them or seeing that they are provided with all the conveniences of life; and this is often done, although their own natural mothers be living, and residing near the spot,—no doubt for the sake of greater care and attention, or to be afterwards a substitute for the true parent, in the event of her premature death.' (p. 97—98, vol. ii.)

The religion of the Tonga Islands is said to consist chiefly in the following notions.

That there are Hotooas, or superior beings, who can dispense good and evil to mankind. That the souls of deceased nobles and matabooles, have the same power in an inferior degree. That there are Hootoa Pow, (mischievous gods,) who never dispense good, but always evil; that all human evil is inflicted by the gods, either on account of the neglect of some religious duty, by the person who suffers the infliction, or by the Egi whom he serves; that all Egi have souls which exist hereafter, not on account of their moral merit, but of their rank in this world. The Matabooles also go to Bolotoo (Heaven) after death, where they are ministers to the gods. Whether the Mooas are admitted to Heaven is doubtful, but the Tooas have no souls, or such only as perish with the body. The human soul, during life, is not supposed to be an essence distinct from the corporeal frame; the primitive gods and deceased nobles, it is assumed, appear sometimes to mankind to warn or assist them, sometimes are incorporated with lizards and other animals for beneficent purposes; and omens with inspirations constitute also part of the creed.

'The Tonga people do not indeed believe in any future state of rewards and punishment, but they believe in that first of all religious tenets, that there is a power and intelligence superior to all that is human, which is able to control their actions, and which discovers all their most secret thoughts; and though they consider this power and intelligence to be inherent in a number of individual beings, the principle of belief is precisely the same; it is perhaps equally strong, and as prac-

tically useful as if they considered it all concentrated in their chief god. They firmly believe that the gods approve of virtue, and are displeased with vice; that every man has his tutelar deity, who will protect him as long as he conducts himself as he ought to do; but, if he does not, will leave him to the approaches of misfortune, disease, and death. And here we find some ground on which to establish a virtuous line of conduct: but this is not sufficient: there is implanted in the human breast, a knowledge or sentiment, which enables us sometimes, if not always, to distinguish between the beauty of disinterestedness and the foul ugliness of what is low, sordid, and selfish; and the effect of this sentiment is one of the strongest marks of character in the natives of these islands.' (p. 149, vol. ii.)

With regard to the sex, we cannot here call it the fair sex, we have the following curious particulars.

'The next subject we shall consider is chastity. In respect to this, their notions are widely different from those of most European nations; we must, therefore, first examine what are their own ideas respecting this matter, and if they are such as are consistent with public decorum and due order and regularity in the social state, without tending to enervate the mind or debase the character of man, we shall take those ideas as the standard by which to judge them, and as far as they act consistently thereto, we shall call them chaste, and as far as they infringe upon it we shall deem them offenders. But here it may be asked how are we to judge whether their own notions upon this subject are consistent with the good order of society, &c. To this we can make no other answer than by referring to the actual state of society there, and pointing out those evils which may be supposed to arise from their wrong notions upon this subject.

'In the first place, it is universally considered a positive duty in every married woman to remain true to her husband. What we mean by a married woman is, one who cohabits with a man, and lives under his roof and protection, holding an establishment of him. A woman's marriage is frequently independent of her consent, she having been betrothed by her parents, at an early age, to some chief, mataboole or mooa: perhaps about one-third of the married women have been thus betrothed; the remaining two-thirds have married with their free consent. Every married woman must remain with her husband whether she choose it or not, until he please to divorce her. Mr. Mariner thinks that about two-thirds of the women are married, and of this number full half remain with their husbands till death separates them; that is to say, full one third of the female population remain married till either themselves or their husbands die: the remaining two-thirds are married and are soon divorced, and are married again perhaps three, four, or five times in their lives, with the exception of a few who, from whim or some accidental cause, are never married; so that about one third of the whole female population, as before stated, are at any given point of time unmarried.' (p. 166—168, vol. ii.)

No man is understood to be bound to conjugal fidelity, but notwithstanding this admitted liberty of conduct, we are told that most of the married men are tolerably true to their wives. If they have any other amour, it is kept a secret from the lady, because it is unnecessary to excite jealousy, and cruel to produce unhap-

piness. With respect to the unmarried men, they range at large with more freedom, but they seldom make any deliberate attempts upon the continence of the wives of others.

We do not know if our European wives will be perfectly satisfied with the causes to which family repose is assigned by the author.

‘As to domestic quarrels, they are seldom known; but this must be said to happen rather from the absolute power which every man holds in his own family: for even if his wife be of superior rank, he is nevertheless of the highest authority in all domestic matters, and no woman entertains the least idea of rebelling against that authority; and if she should, even her own relations would not take her part, unless the conduct of her husband were undoubtedly cruel. That the men are also capable of much paternal affection, Mr. Mariner has witnessed many proofs, some of which have been related; and we have already mentioned that filial piety is a most important duty, and appears to be universally felt.

‘Upon these grounds we would venture to say, that the natives of these islands are rather to be considered a chaste than a libertine people; and that, even compared with the most civilized nations, their character in this respect is to be rated at no mean height; and if a free intercourse could exist with European society, it is a matter of great doubt (whatever might be the change in their sentiments), if their habits or dispositions in this respect would be much improved by copying the examples of their instructors. If, on the other hand, we compare them to the natives of the Society islands, and the Sandwich islands, we should add insult to injustice.’ (p. 179—180. vol. ii.)

Mr. Mariner having in the preceding chapters given an account of the state of religion and morals in these islands, proceeds to develop the progress in useful knowledge. He first treats of the healing art, in his notice of which we apprehend he has been materially assisted by his learned editor.

All the remedies resorted to among these people may be ranked under three heads: invocation, sacrifice, and external operation; excepting that they sometimes resort to infusions of a few plants taken internally, which produce, however, no sensible effect, either upon the system or the disease.

No native of Tonga undertakes to practise surgery unless he has been at the Fiji Islands, which are about three day’s sail, or 100 leagues distant from Tonga. The constant wars in that situation afford abundant experience to the professors.

‘The three most important operations are *cawso*, or parracentesis thoracis; *tocolost*, or an operation for the cure of tetanus, which consists in making a seton in the urethra; and *boca*, or castration.

‘*Cawso* is an operation which is performed to allow of the escape of extravasated blood, which has lodged in the cavity of the thorax, in consequence of wounds, or for the extraction of a broken arrow. There are no other instances where they think of performing it. The instruments they use are a piece of bamboo and a splinter of shell; sometimes a probe made of the stem of the cocoa-nut leaf. Mr. Mariner has seen a number of persons on whom the operation had been per-

med, and who were in perfect health; and two instances of the fact itself he was an eye-witness to.' (p. 246—247. vol. ii.)

'The most common surgical operation among them is what they call *taffe*, which is topical blood-letting, and is performed by making, with a shell, incisions in the skin to the extent of about half an inch in various parts of the body, particularly in the lumbar region and extremities, for the relief of pains, lassitude, &c.; also for inflamed tumours they never fail to promote a flow of blood from the part; by the same means they open abscesses, and press out the purulent matter: in cases of hard indolent tumours, they either apply ignited *tapa*, or hot bread fruit repeatedly, so as to blister the part and ultimately to produce a purulent surface. Ill-conditioned ulcers, particularly in those persons whose constitution disposes to such things, are scarified by shells; those that seem disposed to heal are allowed to take their course without any application.

'In cases of sprains, the affected part is rubbed with a mixture of oil and water, the friction being always continued in one direction, that is to say, from the smaller towards the larger branches of the vessels. Friction, with the dry hand, is also often used in similar and other cases, for the purpose of relieving pain.' (p. 261, vol. ii.)

As we approach the close of the work we have some general observations on the arts and manufactures of these islands; such as canoe building, inlaying with ivory, net making, carving clubs, and culinary preparations; but we do not observe in this part of the work any thing of sufficient novelty and interest to justify additional extracts, and especially as the ingenuity of the people in regard to several of these particulars, is described with the assistance of plates, and with much minuteness of detail by Cook and other navigators.

We must likewise limit ourselves with regard to a part of the work which we have before described as of great value and importance; we mean the grammar and vocabulary of the Tonga language; which is a permanent acquisition that will be had recourse to by every person who visits Tonga and the neighbouring islands.

To Cook's voyages is also added a very brief vocabulary, which was collected during a residence of only two or three months in these situations, and although so much talent was applied in the few particulars of which it consists, yet in point of accuracy it can admit of no competition with that before us, which was the result of four year's residence with this remote people.

There are, however, some omissions by Mr. Mariner which we cannot easily account for, and some variations which it may be as difficult to explain. Bread fruit *Maiee*, Shaddock *Moree*, Elbow *Etoee*, although in Cook's vocabulary, are here excluded. Necklace, in Cook, is *attahoa*; in Mariner, *cahooa* or *calcala*. A mat to wear in the former is *egreeai*, in the latter *gnafi-gnafi*. To sneeze, in the first, is *efangos*, in the other *mafatooa*. A rat is *epallo* in Cook, and *gooma* in Mariner. We might mention fifty other examples, where there is not the smallest similarity in the two versions.

We cannot avoid repeating our complaint of the deficiency of this work with regard to all geographical illustrations, of which most writers possessing Mr. Mariner's qualifications are usually abundant, even to unnecessary prolixity of detail; and the omission is the more to be regretted, because no map or chart is afforded to the work, so that the reader must be in the greatest imaginable perplexity, unless he be provided with the charts of Cook's voyages, with those of the ship *Duff*, or others of the like description. We confess that we should have been satisfied with a delineation in the simplest form, but without some such aid the localities are wholly unintelligible.

The latitude of Port Refuge, in Vavaoo, is stated with sufficient accuracy, being only 14 minutes more south than that assigned to it in the voyage of Captain James Wilson. Tasman, who appeared in the neighbourhood as early as Jan. 1642-3, lays down an island about south latitude 19, which is within 10 minutes of that ascribed to Port Refuge, and which is probably Vavaoo, now supposed to be a new discovery. Cook states that it never was visited by any European. That navigator was certainly deceived by the natives of the Friendly Islands, from some interested motives with regard to Vavaoo, and subsequently, when its dimensions and importance became known to him, he had no convenient opportunity to explore it. Vavaoo, although not comprehended in his map *eo nomine*, yet is among the sixty-one islands named in his catalogue of this cluster, and it is distinguished by italics, as being classed with the largest. He ranks it with Hamoa and Fidjee (Fiji,) the last of these belonging to a distinct government, and a separate Archipelago.

The Hapai Islands are also noticed by Tasman. The principal of them he called Rotterdam, the native appellation being Annamooka, and they extend, according to Cook, south west by south, and north east by north about nineteen miles. Lefooga is the most fertile of these, and it is consequently the most populous. The inhabitants of the whole of the Tonga Islands have been computed at 200,000, distributed over 150 of these minute prominences in the mighty Pacific. The way in which the distances between these points of land were ascertained by Cook, was from the time which the natives represented as necessary to complete their voyages. They sail, he says, in their canoes about eight miles an hour; the sun is their guide by day, and the stars by night. When by the atmospheric vapours the heavenly bodies are obscured, attention is paid to the direction from whence the winds and waves strike upon the vessel. In the computation of distance the night is not included, and a day's sail is somewhat within a hundred miles. Mr. Mariner has given an amusing account of the use he made of a pocket compass on one occasion, and of the difficulty with which he acquired the dominion of the vessel, from the incredulity of his companions. By their compliance alone he and they were preserved from that destruction to

which many of the islanders must be annually consigned, on account of their ignorance of such an inestimable discovery.

The botanical omissions in these volumes are of the less consequence, because the Tonga Islands produce the same plants as Otaheite; and although, according to Forester, some others not indigenous in the latter, flourish in the former, yet the inquiry with regard to them seems to be rather curious to the naturalist than useful to the public.

There is one part of the history which we read with much uneasiness. Cook says of these places, at the time of his visits, 'No one wants the common necessities of life. Joy and contentment are painted on every face, and an easy freedom prevails in all ranks of people;' and that worthy navigator, when he quitted the situation, after a stay of between two and three months, consoled himself with the thought, that he had improved the condition of this remote quarter. Very different was the state of things when Mr. Mariner, after the lapse of about thirty years, arrived: there was neither peace at home nor abroad; the island which was the seat of government had been divided into petty states, that were constantly at war with each other; and ten or twelve years of hostility with the neighbouring islands, were terminated only by the fatigue and anxiety the elder Finow had endured from incessant action. It is true that his successor, from his pacific character and enlightened judgment, presents a more tranquil prospect, and we shall be happy to learn from succeeding adventurers that the condition of repose is regained, which was the theme of eulogy and admiration with Captain Cook, and which acquired for these stations the pleasing appellation of the Friendly Islands.

ART. IV.—*The Emigrant's Guide; or, a Picture of America, exhibiting a View of the United States, divested of Democratic Colouring, taken from the Original, now in the Possession of James Madison, and his Twenty-One Governments. Also a Sketch of the British Provinces delineating their native Beauties, and superior Attractions. By an Old Scene-Painter. 8vo. London. 1816.*

BY late advises, it appears, that no less than 2000 Dutch Quakers are on the point of embarking for the single State of Pennsylvania; and that more than 300 of the number are already on their way to Philadelphia. A redundant population, and the mighty changes that have lately taken place in the attitude of the different powers in Europe, have produced a spirit of emigration to these shores unexampled in our former history. The tendency of the species to increase beyond the means of subsistence, in old countries, is conclusively established by the speculations of Malthus and others,—and is now in course of proof, by the unerring test of experience. The old world is discharging the superflux of human kind into the new. The unsettled regions of the west—the shores of the Pacific—the boundless tracts of South

America attract the emigrating spirit of adventure, and are sufficiently extensive to absorb the surplus population of Europe for centuries to come.

The recent changes in the political state of Great Britain—her transition from extended warfare to profound peace,—by which, it is calculated, one third at least of her population is thrown wholly out of employ, and the rest more or less seriously affected—has had the effect of introducing amongst us an impoverished class of persons, many of them well skilled in the useful arts, but destitute of pecuniary resources—unused to our country; unacquainted with friends; but desirous of employment; which they cannot obtain. There are, moreover, amongst them, many who, instead of complying with the wishes of their government, that they should resort to Canada, prefer our institutions and our laws. The intense severity of a Canadian winter is ill adapted to the feeble frame; and necessity of health, no less than a desire of comforts, drive some to the milder atmosphere experienced in the south and in the west beyond the Alleghany mountains. But, a deficiency of means, that bar to human advancement,—a want of friends to counsel, and associates to encourage, in the important undertaking of a western settlement—preclude many from availing themselves of its advantages. The English and the Swiss, ignorantly bigotted in favour of their *natala sola*, usually continue at home, in the delusive hope of better times, enduring every hardship and oppression, until absolute want, dearth of employment, and consequent danger of starvation, compel them to seek an asylum in foreign lands. The great majority of that class of emigrants, accordingly, become reduced, before their departure, to a sum barely adequate to defray their *steerage passage*, and probably a month's board in America. The uninformed individual considers, that, in this time, something at least may present itself for his acceptance, until better can be procured; not adverting to the immense competition for employment, arising from the unprecedented influx of labour not only from his own nation,—but from every state in Europe.

Now, we cannot but recommend, that some information, on these points, be collected and circulated, in order that emigrants may not be deceived in their expectations; and be enabled, in good time, to regulate their plans accordingly. On their arrival here, where are the selected friends to counsel them? the companies to associate them in their ranks? the advisers, employers, patrons? the instructors to communicate information,—such as can be relied upon for its authenticity? the patriots to lend assistance? On these points, the unfortunate emigrant is frequently as destitute, as he is of the means to command employment. He learns, indeed, the prodigious advantages of the western country resounded in every company, where he can gain admittance; but how is he to attain any share of them? How can he move to the scene of action? and, when there, what is he to do?—Here he is com-

pletely at a loss without any one to direct him. Some interested individuals, indeed, have offered land on their own terms, and invited the settlement of emigrants, on a credit apparently favourable, in the view of the uninstructed; who have been used to the high rents of lordly proprietors in Europe.

But, we will at once dismiss such palliatives as these, by asking, if it be worth while to take an under lease from men who have previously purchased lands? how much more so must it be to purchase, at prime cost, on the original terms of Congress, and at their extended credits? A case has come to our knowledge, where Congress have granted, to a company of respectable gentlemen, between 3 and 400,000 acres of the finest land, situated on the river Tombigbee, above fort St. Stephens—on a credit of *fourteen years*; when it is to be paid for at the rate of only four dollars per acre. The situation is favourable for raising grain of all kinds,—cotton, tobacco, sugar, the vine and the olive; the two latter of which are the professed objects of the French gentlemen associated with the expedition, and are to be cultivated by practical labourers, from the vineyards of France and Italy. The first division, consisting of about twenty-five gentlemen, sailed from Philadelphia the beginning of May, for Mobile, in the schooner *Commodore Macdonough*; and we shall await with some impatience an account of their proceedings, which we may occasionally introduce to the notice of our readers. A glance at the map must satisfy any one, that, in the latitude and longitude of Mobile, perpetual spring and summer must reign. The river Tombigbee* lies rather to the northward and westward of New Orleans; and, if the accounts of it we have heard be correct, it must, as we judge from its position, be particularly propitious to delicate constitutions, and those accustomed to mild climates.

In New York alone, there are at this moment nearly two thousand British emigrants, whom neglect on our part has driven to the necessity of soliciting the commiseration and assistance of their own government. The applications were made to the British Consul, and by him forwarded to the ministry at home; the result of which has been published in the following advertisement:—

Notice to British subjects.

His Britannic Majesty's Consulate, New York, 28th February, 1817.

Having laid before my government the distressed state of the numerous emigrants who arrived at this port during the last year and made application at this office for aid to return to Great Britain and Ireland, or to his majesty's colonies in Upper Canada, and having promised to give public notice to them of the result, I hereby inform such British subjects as can produce satisfactory evidence of good conduct and industrious habits, that I am authorized to place all such in a

* We are happy to learn, as a striking proof of the enterprise and spirit of the times, that a steam boat has been constructed to run from Mobile and navigate the Tombigbee.

situation whereby they may obtain the important privileges of settlement in his majesty's provinces of Upper Canada or Nova Scotia.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

N. B. Passports have already been granted at this office to 340 persons to proceed to Upper Canada.

From the above, it is evident, that the policy recommended by the author of a late work on North America,* who subscribes himself 'a British Traveller'—but whom we apprehend to have been, in reality, a British spy, is now actually adopted by the government of England. That policy consists in a rigorous system of colonization, by pouring large supplies of population into the Canadian territories; so as to endeavour at forming a counterpoise to the United States; or at least to raise up the local means of future annoyance. We mention it that our rulers may be upon their guard, and that our fellow citizens may not hesitate to sanction those measures which have for their object the defence and security of our country. We by no means wish to interfere with Great Britain, in the policy she may think fit to adopt, with regard to the regulation of her own subjects; or to rival her in the display of attractions;—but we do think, that, when a number of our fellow creatures repair spontaneously to our shores, because they are distressed, and anxious, but unable, to find employment—it is our duty, as a generous and hospitable people, to attend to the hardship of the case, and to seek and offer a suitable remedy. If Great Britain will undertake to provide for these emigrants, it is well; but, finding them among us, fatiguing our citizens, as they do, with their importunity to be rendered useful, we think it would be no more than consistent with a just character of liberality to afford to these persons an opportunity of enrolling themselves in companies for the settlement of our western territory.—We have heard, as yet, of but a few detached societies for this purpose; assuming no regular form, and admitting none but those who can advance the sum of one hundred dollars at least. Such are the emigrant societies in the eastern states. But, no specific plan has been hitherto proposed for embodying the individuals destitute of resources, and rendering their services valuable in the grand scheme of western colonization.

We would suggest, then, in the absence of any other, and till a better shall be communicated (which we earnestly wish may be the case), that there be an Association of 500 persons, at least; whose individual example shall mutually stimulate to exertions, which, if isolated, they might be wholly incompetent to render successful. From these a committee of twenty-four persons or more, with a chairman, treasurer, and secretary, should be chosen by a general assembly of the body, and be entrusted with the conduct of their affairs. We would have an agent appointed by the government of the United States, to confer with the representatives

* *The Colonial Policy of Great Britain.*

of the company, and to reside at the chief seat of their destination. Congress, it is presumed, would not refuse grants of land to respectable bodies on the most indulgent and liberal terms; especially were the application made through a proper channel, and sanctioned by the due authorities. At a suitable spot, adjacent to some one of the great western rivers, that empty into the Atlantic Ocean—the Mississippi, the Scioto, or the Ohio—it is proposed to fix upon an eligible scite, for a town, or city; the ultimate magnitude of which would be assisted, as well as the joint interests of the different companies of settlers secured, by the various bodies being brought as much as possible near to each other. In this view it would be proper, that all the companies should emanate from one spot, and look to one rallying point; where the proposed agent of Congress should reside. Hence the distribution of lots should diverge as radii from a common centre, to every point in the circumference, describing an entire circle. Protection and assistance might thus with greater facility be extended equally to the various quarters, and mutual support, so necessary to incipient success, would be the happy result of compact order in the arrangement.

It cannot be doubted, we think, that much good would come of all this;—but the first question naturally is, how is it to be accomplished? Whence the necessary funds? Let it be inquired, what would be the expense of transport for 500 persons, and also of rations for the whole during one year: omitting entirely the consideration of the chase, fowling, and fishing, as sources for a supply of fresh food. Will it exceed the probable sum to be expected of three or more opulent storekeepers, in return for the exclusive privilege of opening stores by themselves or their agents in the new district during a limited term of three or five years? In such case, it would be necessary to leave open the option of procuring articles for private family use from any of the great cities, in order to guard against any undue combination or monopoly; but no other stores should be licensed excepting those belonging to the contractors. A more eligible course might be, to obtain a loan on prior mortgage of the land; the interest to be defrayed out of the second year's crop, and so forth, until the redemption of the principal at the expiration of the debt granted by Congress; it being understood, that the mortgage is to be first satisfied, before the payment of the purchase money. This point, it is presumed, Congress would not object to yield, in order to forward the important interests at issue in this question; since, by so doing, they will not have parted with any essential right, or in any degree have endangered the fulfilment of their just claims.

Thus far it may seem that the proposed settlement is suited more particularly to persons accustomed to agricultural pursuits, and the trades connected with it; but, it is conceived, that, by selecting a position at the extremity of one of those states, in which knowledge is duly estimated, or in such parts of the Missouri, In-

diana, Illinois, or upper border of Louisiana territory, as but upon countries in some degree civilized—certain establishments might be founded, which would afford employment to the various powers of mind, as well as of body; and that a college, or university, with academies to supply it, might be instituted with advantage. It is not so much the state of a country, as the genius and determination of individuals, that gives rise to great undertakings. The cheapness of subsistence, when there, and the economy of education in free schools (which might be brought about, by liberally endowing the professorships) would compensate for the distant travel of youths even from the New England states; and the attraction of superior qualifications, notwithstanding their remoteness, might prevail in the proportion of their power, and surmount every intermediate obstacle. Such establishments would of course raise up printing presses, bookseller's stores, and demand a considerable quantity of stationary—hence the employment for a paper-mill—besides the consumption of innumerable articles of convenience and luxury; so that for talent, genius, and skill, for labour of many kinds, for speculation in some instances, and for industry in all, there would be found a brisk, extensive, and increasing demand.

We are afraid to trust ourselves in the indulgence of the contemplation, that such a prospect naturally excites,—so gratifying to the true patriot, and so interesting to human nature,—lest we should appear too visionary and romantic in the view of some of our readers. But in dismissing the subject for the present we cannot omit to recal the memorable instance of the town of *Harmony*; which exhibits a conclusive example of what industry, perseverance, good sense, and, above all, *union*, properly directed, are able to accomplish: qualities which, assembled and uniting their forces in one direction, will overcome difficulties apparently insuperable; will convert the wilderness into smiling plenty, and must infallibly produce the happiest results.

As a matter intimately connected with the general scope of the foregoing observations, we shall detain our readers with some account of New South Wales; a country, which, as we expect to show, is destined, one day or another, to have no small weight in the interests of the world. England cannot be too narrowly watched. All the Colonies that have been settled by her, in right of possession, of conquest, or of treaty, are become objects of her special care and protection; nor was she willing to give up certain Dutch colonies, captured during the war, which were to be restored by the treaty of peace—without retaining for a term of years, some share in their advantages. But the value attached to colonial possession is more particularly exemplified, in the refusal of the British Cabinet, to restore the islands of St. Lucie and Tobago, formerly belonging to France, as well as the Saintes near Guadalope, in the West Indies, and the Isle of France, in the East. We are led to these remarks by recent information

from England, that a new governor has been appointed for New South Wales; which is to be discontinued as a place of punishment, and to be converted to 'more important purposes.' From all that we have heard of this colony, we are persuaded, that, sooner or later, its consequence as a place of trade and resort,—its vast agricultural resources, resembling, in this respect, our Columbia herself,—its fisheries,—its position, adjacent to China and Japan, and moreover its extent, (taking the whole island, 2000 miles long, and, in some places, nearly as broad)—must raise it into a more general and particular notice; attracting to its shores a host of settlers, traders, and others, who, multiplying with the powers of production in the soil, must speedily acquire for the country a new character, and force its way to public attention. Perhaps, at no distant day the infant colony, arriving at maturer vigor may reject parental control, and assume the independent functions of its manhood. A case, so analagous, in some respects, to that of our own country, it is curious to contemplate; and, whether the severence take place sooner or later, one thing is pretty certain, that it will occur through the mismanagement of the mother country.

We shall now proceed to give some account of the settlement itself derived from the information of an eye witness. Botany Bay, so called from the quantity of new botanical plants found growing on its shores, is situated in 33° S. long. 170° E. The most considerable district is that of Sidney. There are built ships of 500 tons, which sail to China, and to Peru. The East India Company is extremely jealous of the trade between New South Wales and China; and it is possible that, in the true spirit of monopoly, by their influence in the British Parliament, they may succeed in crushing it. Such a measure would infallibly produce much opposition in New South Wales; and, if persevered in, might be productive of a serious rupture. Sidney has, besides, as its dependencies, Paramatta, Newcastle, and Hawksbury, together with two islands, adjacent to the main land, termed Norfolk Island and Van Dieman's Land. All these settlements are prosperous and thriving. As the inhabitants enjoy a pure climate and productive soil, diseases, with the exception of such as arise from intemperance, or accident, are little known. Fresh fruits and vegetables are produced from the beginning to the end of the year. In the several towns, are to be found mechanics, manufacturers, and artists of every description; but agricultural labour is the most productive. In New South Wales, there are two annual harvests of wheat, of maize, and of grass. The increase of maize is astonishing; one bushel of its seed producing 600! Wheat is generally eaten by the wealthier classes, and supplied to shipping. Maize is consumed chiefly by the poor. Rice, millet, and oats, have, as yet, been rarely planted; but they thrive uncommonly well. The wild cattle are almost as numerous as those of South America; and, by means of them, and of the tame herds and flocks, an abundance of fresh meat is at all times to be had in the different markets, and,

generally, at a reasonable price. A cross breed of sheep, mingling a few English ewes with some Cape and Bengal rams, has produced a very superior fleece, which has been much admired, and estimated to be worth 6s. per pound in England. The climate is very favourable to sheep, and the mutton perhaps not to be surpassed in the world. The excellent quality of the wool has induced several public spirited individuals to establish, at Paramatta, a woollen manufactory; which has been attended with every success.—At Sidney, 78 looms are constantly employed in weaving sails and sacking, as also a coarse cloth and linen. Some line and flax are manufactured; and, if encouragement offered, might be so to a much greater extent.

Bass, by his discovery of the straits that bear his name, obviated, to vessels sailing from the Cape of Good Hope to New South Wales, the passage to and around a very stormy cape; which new track shortened the distance from Africa by one thousand miles. The sea that washes the shores of New South Wales and of Peru, deserves the name of *Pacific*; for it has no violent curenets, no Trade Winds, no Chinese Tuffons. From Sidney the voyage to New Zealand is frequently performed in three days; to China, in five weeks; to Peru, in four; to Bengal, in six; and to the Cape of Good Hope, in five. The geographical advantages of the position, therefore, are evidently great and promising.

From the south pole herrings visit Botany Bay during November and following months; and five or six species of the fish common to the British channel are daily caught on the coast. Sperm whales abound in the mouths of the rivers, and in every part of the sea to Peru. The oil is brought there in small vessels, and thence exported to London. One house in Sidney, consisting of three partners, *who were formerly convicts*, remitted oil and seal skins to London, in one year, to the value of £50,000. It is expected, that a profitable traffic, will be carried on between Sidney and Peru, should the South American provinces establish their independence. The exports of the Colony have hitherto principally consisted of oil, seal skins, coals, and wool. The trade in skins and coals, is the most thriving; though it is much straitened by the restrictions in favour of the East India Company. The culture of hemp and flax for exportation is rapidly increasing. Masts and spars, equal to those of Norway, are exported to Bengal; and a profitable trade in sandal wood, procured from the neighbouring Feejee islands, is carried on with the South Sea islands and China, where, the demand is very great, and, of course, prices very high. At present, owing to the absurd monopoly vested in the East India Company, the trade to China is illicit, and carried on under numerous disadvantages. The chief articles of import are, spirituous liquors, tea, sugar, agricultural implements, manufacturing tools and machines, watches, haberdashery, millinery, wrought iron, brass, copper, pewter, steel, glass and earthenware, books, leather, cutlery, stuffs, baizes, hats, soaps, drugs, colours, stationary, tin, japanned and plated ware, toys, sadlery, musical and mathematical instru-

ments, turnery, pins, needles, fish-hooks, painted floor cloths, silk, worsted, and European goods of every description. Our own countrymen supply a cheap kind of rum (the New England) which is much esteemed by the lower classes.

Potteries and breweries have been established at Sidney. The iron ore, of which there is abundance, and of very fine quality, has not yet been worked. This will be another source of wealth and improvements whenever the forward state of the settlement shall admit of its being opened. But the chief hope and promise of New South Wales consists in the tract of country beyond the Blue Mountains, recently explored by the surveyor of the Colony, and afterwards visited by the present Governor himself. It appears that a great portion of the land is rich meadow pasture, intersected by rivers abounding with the finest fish, and well adapted for mills and other machinery. It is probable that here, like our extensive and fertile western territory, the future glories of this interesting country will fix their seat; and hence, too, is destined to spring the main impulse of accelerated prosperity to the Colony at large. Already it stands in need of no importation of the necessaries of life: the people are as remote from calamity, or real distress, as any nation upon earth. The spring there is in the month of August. The China fruits, loquates, are then ripe; strawberries, in the latter end of September, and beginning of October; and peaches, apples, peas, oranges, and limes, succeed them. These are planted, of course, in different situations. The grapes ripen in January, and continue to the latter end of February. Potatoes, as well as peas, abound throughout the whole year. In short, all vegetables thrive remarkably well, and are very plentiful. It is in contemplation to try the cultivation of the tea plant. Sugar cane is indigenous to the soil; but has not yet been regularly attended to in plantations; owing chiefly to the high price of labour, which has been exclusively directed, heretofore, to raising more absolute necessaries. Melons, figs, and pomegranates are at all times abundant. In Norfolk Island a state of cultivation exists, equal to that in the West Indies; and there can be no doubt, that every article of tropical culture might be raised in like perfection, as in the Antilles. The want of an enlarged market is severely felt by the settlers. Much advantage might result, if the Colony were allowed to export grain to Bourbon, and the Mauritius, or to any other place that might want it.

In spite of all the precautions adopted by the British Government to prevent persons from going out as free settlers, who do not possess certain qualifications, it is probable that the island will be rapidly peopled by emigrants from various quarters, whom distress, and the many consequences of a superabundant population in old countries, may drive from their native homes, to seek asylums in a foreign land. At present, it is provided, that none shall be allowed to go out unless they can prove themselves to be possessed of sufficient property to establish themselves there, without

the assistance of Government; and can produce the most satisfactory testimonials and recommendations from persons of known respectability. The person allowed to go, is then recommended to the Governor, at whose discretion it is left to make what grant of land he may think expedient. One great bar to the resort of British subjects, is the great distance, and the great expense, of the voyage; two circumstances which, we incline to think, must lead to the ultimate separation of the Colony from the mother country; especially should a vexatious system of restrictions and monopolies continue to be practised. Its remoteness and consequent security against hostile attacks, which could only be attended with a very considerable expense on the part of the invading enemy, will, perhaps, some day or other, furnish an argument for independence, which inclination may not be slow to alledge and to act upon.

ART. V.—*Essays on Hypochondriacal and other Nervous Affections*. By JOHN REID, M. D. Memb. R. Coll. Ph. Lond. &c. London and Philadelphia. 1817.

AN English book, upon what has been called, *κατ' ἀρχήν*, 'the English malady,' was to have been expected before this time; though we know not, that any one expected exactly such a book as this of Dr. Reid's. It is worth reading on many accounts. There are some curious facts and many good practical observations in it; but then the quantity of useful information bears no proportion to the size of the volume; which, though by no means huge, has evidently been blown into a sizeable book, by mere dint of rhetorical elaboration. We have seldom read a more flowery volume. To speak in the Doctor's own metaphorical spirit, the foliage of his language entirely covers up the fruit of his matter. He seems not so much intent on giving us abundance of new ideas, as upon showing us in how many different ways he can express the same idea. First 'it may be said to be' this or that; then 'we may liken it to' such and such a thing; next 'it is' one thing or another; then 'it may be compared to' this or that;—and thus the series goes on, till, in some instances, we know not what the man is talking about. Take, for example, his observations upon the stoical doctrine of repressing one's emotions. First, we have a confined elastic fluid; then, a pair of stilts; next, a cloke, and armour; fourthly, a feather in one's cap; and, lastly, something which 'glitters' and has a 'slight and superficial gilding.'

'It (stoicism) may forbid pain from betraying itself in the writhings of the limbs, or in the contortions of the countenance; but feeling, thus forcibly compressed within the heart, will be in danger of bursting it by its elastic force and expansion. A man elevated on the stilts of stoicism, stands higher indeed, but less securely. They lift him above the ground; but, whilst they deduct from his safety, they give no real addition to his stature. Stoicism is a cloke which merely disguises, not an armour which defends and fortifies, our weakness. The vanity of its lofty pretensions may be compared to the feather that

idly floats above the head, not to that solid part of the helmet which encircles and protects it. The glitter of affected magnanimity is apt to be mistaken for what is sterling and substantial, until the repeated rubs of life have worn off the slight and superficial gilding.'

Dr. Reid makes this parade of metaphors—and thinks he is writing like Johnson. Nothing makes an emptier sound in our ears; and nothing, it seems to us, can be more inappropriate to the subject, which the Doctor has undertaken to handle. It is a remark of some of our best metaphysicians, that no one circumstance has so much obstructed the progress of mental philosophy, as the practice, which all writers have fallen into, more or less, of attempting to illustrate the operations of mind, by comparing them to the affections of matter. Almost all our intellectual phraseology is made up of metaphorical allusions: and yet nothing is more certain, we think, than that mind is essentially different from every thing else. To use, therefore, such a merciless profusion of metaphor, in treating of its operations and accidents, as Dr. Reid has employed, seems to be going on a system, which is the very least of all calculated to give us right notions on the subject. If he is a professed materialist, he has some excuse; though, even then, the unconscionable frequency of his 'thick coming fancies' would be considered as horribly out of taste. A half a dozen indifferent figures is by no means so illustrative as a single good one; and, very frequently, even one is worse than none at all. A writer much addicted to metaphorical language, also, is sometimes incapable of distinguishing between resemblances and realities—between figures and facts. We shall have occasion to point out some of Dr. Reid's mistakes in this particular; and, we hope, his example will be a warning to those American writers, who, like him, think there is nothing so pretty as a new metaphor.

The physician who neglects the mind diseased, and applies all his remediable powers to the body alone, is only tying up one artery, while his patient is bleeding to death at another. We know not how the intellectual and physical parts of our constitution act and react upon each other; but we know, that they do thus act and react; and we have, consequently, done but the half of our duty, if we have only endeavoured to sanify one of the subjects, which are effected by the operation. Many curious instances are recorded of the control which our will has over the diseases of the body. One Dr. Chyne gives an account of a person, who counterfeited death so much better than Falstaff, that himself and several other physicians, after vainly feeling his pulse and holding a mirror to his mouth, were well convinced that he had carried the joke too far, and were about to leave him for dead; when they saw his limbs move; felt his pulse beat; observed his breath return; and, finally, witnessed his complete resuscitation. 'Celsus speaks of a priest 'that could separate himself from his senses when he list, and lie 'like a dead man, void of life and sense. *Qui, quoties volebat, 'mortuo similis jacebat, auferens se a sensibus.* Cardan brags of

‘himself, that he could do as much, and that when he list.’* To these instances, cited by Dr. Reid, we may add that of a person, who, under the name of William Newman, has given so much trouble to the sheriffs and jailors of New Brunswick and of New England. When he was first confined in goal, he so admirably counterfeited a quick consumption, through all its stages of raising blood, and progressive debility, that the doctors in the neighbourhood were completely deceived. He was thrown into jail on the 2nd of August, 1814; but it was not till the 22nd of September, that his dissolution was threatened. Towards evening of that day, the jailor’s son entered the prison and found Newman already cold to the knees. The dying man asked for a hot brick to warm them; and, while honest John (that was the name of the jailor’s son) went out to get it for him, he leapt out of bed; escaped from the prison, and eluded the vigilance of all his pursuers.† These are proofs of the power which the will has over our bodies; and Dr. Reid concludes, that, ‘if, by a determination of the mind, it be practicable in some cases to suspend altogether the appearance of life, it is reasonable to believe, that, by the same means, we may put at least a temporary stop to the symptoms of disease.’ It cannot be denied, however, that there is some difference between creating, and destroying; and even Dr. Reid does not go so far as to say, that the power of the will in preventing disease is any thing like that which may be exercised in bringing it on. But, whatever may be its efficacy in curing disorders of the body, it certainly has very little in counteracting those of the mind. In all cases of nervous affection, the very seat of disease is on the Will itself; so that to bid one, in hypochondriasis, for example, to get the better of the complaint by resolving to do so, is about equivalent to telling a person confined by paralysis, to make himself well, by walking or running about. This is the only point, at which Dr. Reid arrives, through his two first Essays.

He begins the third with telling us, that an undue fear of death is the chief symptom of hypochondriasis; and then attempts to account for the well known fact, that those persons are the most fond of living, who have enjoyed life the least. We have two or three pages of metaphor on the subject; but Dr. Reid gives us no new explanation of the circumstance. It strikes us, that there are two obvious causes of such a paradoxical attachment. In the first place, a man whose past life has been miserable, very naturally would live to see the time when hope tells him he shall be happy. And, in the second place, death is considered, by all, as the last degree of that bodily suffering, of which every pain is, more or less, a modification. A being, therefore, who never has experi-

* Burton, Anat. Melan.

† Memoirs of Henry More Smith, *alias* William Newman. New York, 1816. No man, who has read the book, can have the least doubt, as to the authenticity of the marvellous facts which it contains. It is written by Walter Bates, the sheriff, who had the most to do with the prisoner.

enced pain, can have no idea of what death is, or of what is meant by the phrase King of Terrors. A babe cannot be said to fear death; and grown persons can only fear it, in proportion to their experience of the sort of suffering of which death is the superlative degree. Fear is the offspring of danger; and every instance of suffering puts us more or less in danger of death, and makes us more or less afraid of it. A man who has been in great misery all the days of his life—and yet is conscious, that there is still one misery, which is greater than all the rest, will naturally have greater fear of that misery, than he who has suffered very little of the ills which we are heirs to; and who, consequently, can only look upon death as the last degree of what, to him, has been, by no means, intolerably afflicting. It is all a matter of self-comparison. The King of Terrors is no bugbear to the person, who has never learned, by experience, what terror is.

The remainder of this Essay is taken up with an enumeration of instances, in which men have died through the fear of death. Lord Littleton expired exactly at the stroke of the clock, which, he had become possessed of an idea, would be the signal of his dissolution. A man who was sentenced to be bled to death, is said to have departed this life, by having his eyes blinded, while water was made to trickle down his arm. Another who had been condemned to decapitation, e'n left the world on the block, before the first accents of his reprieve could reach his ear. And, in the Sandwich Islands, there is said to be religious sect, who have such influence over the natives, that, when they send notice to any one, who has displeased them, that they are about to pray for his death, he frequently dies without further ceremony. We disagree with Dr. Reid in considering all these catastrophes as the simple and immediate effect of fear. It seems to be a general principle of our constitution, that a full, strong, intense, and exclusive conception of an object or event, is about equivalent to the actual and present sensation of it. A man, who is sick at the stomach, to take a very familiar example, is as incapable of containing, if he thinks of a sumptuous table, as if a sumptuous table were actually before his eyes. It seems to be an essential part of this disorder to keep the mind fixed upon the very thing, with which the stomach is most disgusted; insomuch, that, with the most painful exertion, we are incapable of conceiving any thing but a good dinner;—and it is this rivetted and exclusive conception of the object, which, we have no doubt, produces the same effects as its actual presence and sensation. The same is the case with fear. It is defined to be the effect of apprehended or real danger. Danger cannot, by any definition of the thing, be said to contain the elements of death; and consequently, cannot, through the fear it excites, be the cause or means of death. Fear operates, by rivetting our minds to the thing feared, till we have such a strong and intense conception of it, that the effect, as in the other case, is the same as that of the actual sensation. This we take to be the metaphysics of the thing.

We attach no importance to the question; and, for all the purposes of common speech, it is well enough to say, a person may be scared to death;—just as it is commonly said, that beer may be thundered to vinegar.—In the conclusion of this Essay, the Doctor very severely reprobates the quackery of attempting to cure diseases by working on the imagination. He calls it ‘treacherous logic,’ ‘meanness and atrocity,’ ‘robbery and murder,’ ‘the basest and blackest art of empirical imposture.’ Amen.

Pride often brings on insanity; and Dr. Reid says, there is an almost inseparable connexion between ‘vanity and vexation of spirit.’ Proud men always dwell upon themselves, both in thought and in conversation; and egotism is, in fact, a species of insanity. Egotism, when combined with pride, always makes a man fancy himself bigger than he is; when united to humility, it makes us think we are less than we are;—and Zimmerman mentions the case of a man, who fancied himself a barley-corn, and durst not go out of doors, for fear the birds would pick him up. Egotistical pride should be subject to a system of mortification;—egotistical humility should be treated with ‘encouraging respect and courtier like attention.’ Our readers have already seen how the Doctor flagellates stoicism.

Dr. Johnson has a right to be heard on the subject of hypochondriasis. ‘No disease of the imagination is so difficult to cure (says he, in *Rasselas*) as that which is complicated with ‘remorse, or the dread of guilt. Fancy and conscience act interchangeably upon us; and so often shift their place, that the illusions of the one are not distinguished from the dictates of the other. When melancholy notions take the form of duty, they lay hold on the faculties without opposition, because we are afraid to exclude or banish them.’ Remorse is often felt most acutely by those persons who have the least reason for accusing themselves; and we frequently condemn ourselves for an action, which merely happens to be followed by a disastrous consequence. A man often charges himself with malice prepense, when he must be conscious of no evil intention; and judges himself by an *ex post facto* law, because an innocent transaction has come to a guilty end. How this injustice to ourselves is to be avoided, or remedied, we do not find that Dr. Reid has told us. Well founded remorse, however, may be worked off, by a course of active duty.

Burton thus concludes his work on Melancholy—‘be not solitary: be not idle;’ and Johnson, in the sage of *Rasselas*, most admirably illustrates the manner, in which a mixing with society will gradually obliterate the hypochondriacal ideas engendered by solitude. But as the disease is cured by coming amongst men, so it is caught by retreating into seclusion; and many a man who fancies he is retiring from active public life, finds that he has only brought himself into the country to be mad. There is a medium in the thing. Too much society soon pushes us through

the round of its diversions; and we become so satiated, at last, that we are recluses in a drawing-room. Hypochondriasis, too, is a kind of contagious disorder; and one person afflicted with it, will often spread it among a hundred.

Intemperate study is a cause of hypochondriasis; and, though the Doctor satirically remarks, that the youths of the present generation are not likely to be made mad by too much learning, he thinks it worth while to caution a few excepted persons against immoderate reading, or too intense reflection. He gives a case, which, we think, is not altogether to the point; though it is amusing. An Oxonian scholar had studied most laboriously and incessantly to gain the highest honours of his college; when the sudden institution of some new rules about examination, made him completely despair of attaining his object. There was no ground for despair; 'but the idea of possible defeat' (it was not exactly intense application, then) so harrassed his mind that he became a little insane. He would do nothing without the utmost previous deliberation; and, when he had done it at last, he repented of the action. 'I remember calling on him one afternoon,' (says the Doctor) and finding him still in bed, from not having 'as yet been able to determine whether he should put on his 'pantaloons, or his small clothes for the day. He at length fixed 'upon the latter; but had not been long risen, before he changed 'that for a different dress.' In short, he equally repented of every thing he did, and of every thing he did not.—Change of employment is recommended to the studious. But, above all things, the Doctor would have us keep out of all metaphysical speculation.

Vicissitude is a cause, and characteristic symptom of intellectual malady. Though madness be always the same mental disorganization; yet it manifests itself outwardly in very different ways,—sometimes in the most obstreperous fury, and sometimes in the most sullen repose. There is the same difference also in those lighter modifications of the disease, which we rank under the general term of hypochondriasis. Sudden fits of jocularity—and sudden turns of seriousness, are indicative of a mind slightly—and very slightly insane. The only remedy is to begin early, with habits of temperance; meaning by that word, a systematic regulation of our feelings. Disproportionate mental affections may thus be got under; just as bodily deformities are compressed into natural shape.

Want of sleep is another cause and accompaniment of insanity. The rapid and incongruous association of our ideas in sleep is said to counteract that steadiness and intensity of thought, which generally precedes madness. Mr. Stewart, we believe, was the first who observed, that the effect of sleep on the mind, like its effect on the body, was, to suspend the power of volition over its other faculties. And the author before us thinks the periodical repose of volition is necessary to recruit and sustain its influence.

The analogy is by no means perfect. Does the Doctor mean that a refreshment of the will is all the benefit our bodies receive from sleep? Should we be rested at all, if our corporeal faculties, like our mental, were, during sleep, in a state of constant and ungovernable agitation? We are inclined to think, that the mind is not at all refreshed by dreams; and that it is only from a state of comparative repose, both bodily and intellectual, that any recreation is derived. The Doctor's next idea seems to be more rational. Sleep is a sort of armistice to the conflicting passions, which, when uninterrupted, are apt to lay waste and disorganize the mind. Obstinate vigilance, on the other hand, keeps the passions in perpetual hostility. It becomes a war of extermination; and some master-feeling, or favourite idea, finally gains and keeps the ascendancy. In these cases the Doctor has found the cold or warm bath to be decidedly advantageous. And he quotes the authority of Horace—

‘Transanto Tiberium, somno quibus est opus alto.’

Intemperance not only shortens life, by making one ‘live too fast’—but embitters it, also, by making him melancholy. We always pay for unusual elevation of spirits, by a proportionate depression. There is a considerable difference, however, between the various kinds of stimuli,—between what we drink as *bona fide* fermented liquors, and the ‘draughts’ which (to use Dr. Reid’s phrase) some ‘ingurgitate, in a pharmaceutical shape’—between brandy and opium, in two words. The difference is principally in degree. The elevation produced by ardent spirits is just high enough to involve us in the clouds; while that produced by opium raises us into the region of perpetual sunshine. The fall is proportionate, in both cases, to the elevation. The person who is addicted to opium, feels much more miserable, than the wine bibber, after the exhilaration is over. Dr. Reid says, that opium operates like oil on water; ‘allaying the agitation of the billows ‘and inducing an agreeable stillness and tranquillity.’ We suspect, however, that the description is drawn from the fancied analogy between the two substances,—and not from the actual state of what he has observed to be the case. He very sensibly remarks, however, that the common method of attempting to reform drunkards is the worst that can be devised; and that, instead of delineating the prospective misery, to which his life must bring him, we ought to show the more encouraging picture of what comforts await the contrary course. Men who take up hard drinking to prevent themselves from reflecting on their misfortunes, are already habituated to the most gloomy and dark imaginings. As it is impossible, therefore, for another to set before them a worse picture than they themselves call up to their minds, so it is impossible, by such means, to frighten them from their course. By painting the consequences of different conduct, however, we place before them a prospect, which is a complete contrast to what they are accustomed to contemplate; and which, therefore,

has a fair chance of giving a beneficial turn to the current of their thoughts.—The Essay is concluded by a description of the ebriety produced by unexampled good fortune. Dr. Reid cannot pretend, that this sort of intoxication is like that produced by ardent spirits; and he should have taken the pains, we think, to point out the difference between them. Instead of this, he only tells us, that prosperity is, in this particular, more efficacious than adversity; as if adversity ever made a man drunk! Indeed, the word drunkenness is always a metaphor, when applied to a man whose head is turned by unexpected good luck;—and this is one of the instances, in which the Doctor has mistaken a figure for a fact, because his habitual use of metaphors has disabled him from distinguishing between the two.

Some hypochondriacs are so afraid of starving to death, that they deny themselves even the common necessities of life, and die out of mere excess of abstinence.—Morbid affections of the senses—particularly of the eye and ear—are sometimes the causes and sometimes the consequences of nervous diseases. Dean Swift often complained of deafness: Cowper had such a perpetual din in his head, that he could hear nothing aright; and Dr. Johnson says, at one time, that he could not hear the town clock distinctly; and, at another, that he heard his mother calling out ‘Sam’—though she had been dead many years. Blindness is another effect of the malady. In both cases, external applications are ineffectual; and there is no help for the patient, except in some regimen, which reforms the whole tone of his constitution. Lotions, and the like of that, are but sorry specifics.

Dr. Reid asserts, that mental derangement is no sign of constitutional vigour of intellect;—and, in order to prove the assertion, he adduces the fact, that, in those diseases which are accompanied by insanity, the mental change never takes place till the body is excessively debilitated. We do not clearly see the logic of this observation; but it corresponds with the thesis of the next Essay—that physical malady is the occasion of mental disorder. This we do not think is conclusively proved; though we cannot spare room to tell our readers why.—We can make very little of what the Doctor says on the atmosphere of London.—In the next Essay, on dyspeptic and hepatic diseases, the epicures and gormandizers have some good advice. The Doctor laments the dissuetude into which fasts have fallen; and recommends to all gluttons, that, in order to treat their stomachs fairly, they should allow them ‘a periodical holy-day.’—There are some valuable observations upon idiocy, palsy, spasmodic, and convulsive affections; which, however, we cannot afford to particularize.—Essay XVIII is on the hereditary nature of madness. Dr. Reid says, that it is not so much madness, strictly speaking, as a tendency to it, which is hereditary. It often lies hid in one generation, and breaks out in another.

The Doctor reprobates, with all his might, the conduct of those who marry under a full consciousness of their disposition to insanity.—We are obliged to pass by his remarks on old age; which are neither new, nor striking.—He speaks sensibly, however, on the subject of lunatic asylums. As men are often killed, by being interred prematurely; so, says the Doctor, a person may be made insane, by being too soon confined as such. Great caution is requisite in this particular. The Doctor censures the whole of the present system; and is particularly indignant at straight-jackets and shaving. Lunatics, he says, can only be brought back to reason by kind and gentle treatment. Our medical prisons, he calls ‘slaughter-houses for the destruction and mutilation of the human mind.’ Insanity does not come on like a fit. Its progress is gradual; may be accurately marked, and, with due pains, be effectually counteracted. As one of its most usual prognostics is a constant recurrence of some favourite idea, every pains should be taken to draw off the mind from the contemplation of that particular object.—The Doctor’s observations on bleeding, on pharmacy, on ablution, and on bodily exercise, must be past over. In Essay XXVI we learn, that real evils are sometimes a remedy for those which are imaginary. Fancy has often the effect of reality, in creating disease; but fancy can never be so strong as reality; and, accordingly, when some actual disease takes hold of a hypochondriac, not only the disorder created by the imagination, but the very imagination itself, is generally made sound. Sensation calls off the mind to another object; and thus destroys the very aliment of mental disease.—The last Essay is upon occupation. The Doctor makes some good observations on the subject; but we find nothing worthy of particular remark.

We have thus given a short sketch of Dr. Reid’s performance. We were induced to notice it, because, from its very nature, it requires little medical learning to examine its contents; and because we are desirous of encouraging every attempt to clear up a subject, which, in consequence of its subtlety, is almost universally neglected. The mysterious connexion which subsists between the mind and the body, has always been a subject of speculation. It yet remains undiscovered; and every essay towards it, therefore, deserves to be taken notice of.—We shall close the article with a letter addressed to us; in which a very curious case of insanity is related.

DEAR SIR,

Most people feel interested in tracing the mental history of the insane. It affords a melancholy pleasure to become acquainted with their strange imaginations; and the thought should not be a stranger to us, that the misfortune which we perceive others are subject to, may befall ourselves. I have heard of a crazy fellow who arose in a church, and said, while the preacher was reminding his hearers of their ingratitude, ‘Not one of you ever thought of thank-

ing God for his reason!" Perhaps the following history may convey reproof and instruction; and induce some to be grateful for well ordered minds, who have hitherto considered themselves entitled to uninterrupted sanity.

A few years since I was personally acquainted with a lady of a reputable family, who had an inordinate attachment to splendour and equipage; which the circumstances of her husband would not permit him to indulge. Her mad love of gaudy, but ideal bliss, together with the disappointment of her extravagant wishes, produced a chronical distemper of the mind. Her dress became highly expensive and fantastic: and she would take possession of any elegant carriage which she found drawn up at a neighbour's house; giving the coachman directions to drive to some spacious abode, which she deemed her own. In one of these excursions she was driven to the Lunatic Asylum; and, rather against her will, detained there. It was, however, 'her Palace;' and all the other insane inhabitants of the place were either her servants, or her guests. Among others, who occasionally visited the Asylum, she saw the writer. At this time Napoleon Bonaparte enjoyed the wealth and dignity of a powerful emperor; and who should be the husband of our lady, but the potent monarch of France, and temporary creator of the destinies of Europe! She imagined herself Josephine; and, although, in reality, she had never seen him who is now the exile of St. Helena; yet she had seen an engraving of his face; and the profile was like — yes, it was like that of the writer. For many months he was the Emperor, and she was his spouse; confined by him in a splendid castle, that he might make severe trial of the strength of her affection for him. Her husband and daughters she would not so much as recognize, or deign to answer, during all this time of her imaginary exaltation to a throne and a crown. Any thing which the keeper desired me to request of her, she would perform; and any thing which he could persuade her, I had ordered, was a matter of gratification. Her white sattins and florentine silks were not abandoned in the place of confinement; but she would daily appear in all the stateliness and pride of universal domination. The means of writing were not always afforded her; but when they were, Napoleon was the subject of every line. One Lords-day she solicited pen and ink, and was indulged by the keeper, under this express agreement, that she should write only on a *serious* subject: and so she filled all the blank leaves of a Psalm-book with a rhapsody which began thus: 'I am required to write only on a *serious* subject. What *subject* can be more *serious* to me, than my present separation from my dear Napoleon?'

That your readers may have some opportunity of becoming acquainted with her talents, and her state of mind, I shall subjoin the copies of two letters which she addressed to your correspondent.

COPY OF LETTER I.

*Spain, March 26th, 1816.**

DEAR NAPOLEON,

How novel the style—how various and impressive the emotions!—I desired greatly this privilege of addressing you—can scarcely realize the indulgence—and yet, how astonishing!—I certainly address the Emperor of the world, as my own dear husband, and consider the implements of conveying a thought, a wish, the greatest favour! Possessing them,—what can I say to you? A volume could not contain it—and yet, my pen is mute; nor can my hand, my tremulous hand, retrace the great, the vast, the awful ideas that nearly overpower my imagination; nor engage in that converse sweet that is comprised in objects more minute. I certainly have caught the contagion, or mania of objects that surround me. I am bewildered. The sublime, the profound, the infinite; ‘the burlesque and trifling;’ the tender and endearing; the repulsive and forbidden; sham quarrels, and checked reconciliations:—grandeur, magnificence in prospect;—real sufferings, indignities and respect,—the sway of the hearts and affections of millions in submissive subjection to a small single control, &c. &c.—are so blended and confounded, that I can give no intelligible expression to any one of them.

The present hour, aided by the powerful stimulant of sense, predominates, and urges you, in all the language that is persuasive or pathetic, by every motive that can affect the heart, towards an object beloved;—yes, beloved,—to put a period to my present probation. Let candour prevail, and inform me what depends on myself that may abridge the period of my residence at this Palace, that bars me from intimate communion with you, and causes all this delirium and rhapsody.

Dear husband, our union, so frequently confirmed by the expression of our will, so repeatedly solemnized by our affectionate subjects, in the various cathedrals and chapels we have attended, cannot now be affected by the voice or will of others, be their inclination or influence what it may. Hasten then to the relief of your spouse. An army would be superfluous: your presence and authority would dissolve the charm, and unbar the gates that withhold me from your embrace. Mount your swiftest, fleetest courser, and speed—fly to the relief of your Margaret. Say that this day shall end the perturbation of her mind, or turn all the energies of her emotions into a new channel, by a transit of situation:—or hush them into peace and sweet tranquillity by the soothings of endearment and affection—the kindly office of tender friendship, of conjugal love. I wish to say much: do you imagine all for me; being under restraint lest some of the enemy’s scouting parties should intercept this, and give it publicity, which would be painful to delicacy, and tenderness that shrinks from the observation and criticism of others. I will only add, hasten to the relief of your affectionate wife Margaret—your own dear

MARGARET BONAPARTE.

The Emperor Napoleon.

P. S. This is conveyed with great risk, by the keeper of the castle. I hope it may arrive safe, and my answer be from your own lips.

M. B.

* She should have written A. D. 1811.

COPY OF LETTER II.

Thermadore ———.

DEAR NAPOLEON,

Thank you for this means of address, my husband! I am wretched at our separation. What can I urge that has not already become tiresome by repetition? Does any thing depend on me? Why not put it in my power; and convey intelligence —? I tax not my husband with want of gallantry—but myself with impropriety or indelicacy.— Oh! no—are you not my husband? Does not that title convey to you indescribable sensations, immense prospects, endearing, mutual obligations? Does my Napoleon realize the character he has thus assumed; and can he hold at a distance; try with relentless severity and perseverance, all the soul of his afflicted Margaret? Does not my dear husband see that the severity and duration of these trials have really an unfriendly effect on his own heart? I will not again ask, ‘Have you a heart? Is it callous?’ Yes, you have one, and it is in your Margaret’s possession. With all your *sang froid*, and smiling indifference, it has a language better understood,—perhaps under a well acted part,—by some small tokens, that the manner and language were not real, were only the expression of the ‘sovereign austere,’ not of the tender, sympathizing friend! Again, let me ask—does any thing depend on me?

Nearly six months since we met in the German Chapel!!! Oh! my dear husband,—I entreat you to exert yourself—leave *nothing* to me—but fetch me home. Bid me come to you—come without disguise to me:—come now! come on receipt of this order. The bar of communication removed from between us, need I appoint the manner or means that would be acceptable? Oh! spare your Margaret; at least spare me.—What is the obstacle? There was none to our marriage—it was publicly performed. Was it then my local situation? I came here in entire obedience, implicit obedience to your commands; and can be detained here by no other authority. Has any person dared to make use of your name, unauthorized—he is amenable to you: still am I solely subject to the mandate in your name that conveyed me here.

I care not for the carriage, horses, or driver: if yours, they are at your command, or any other, set me down again, if you do not chuse to come for me yourself. To the slightest communication of your will I have endeavoured to conform, so far as known:—but enough of this repetition. Why is my Napoleon separated from his

MARGARET BONAPARTE.

N. B. ——— will hand you this. I beg you will commission him with a message in return, for which he is requested to wait. Adieu, for a very little time, when I hope we shall meet without restraint, to the relief and happiness of your affectionate

JOSEPHINE.

Margaret is her own Christian name; and Josephine, I presume, must be her name of empire. A little inconsistency must be expected in a crazy person: but may I not be permitted to say, that very few ladies, were they really in the situation in which she imagined herself to be, would have written with more ingenuity, persuasion, art, and tenderness? She blames Napoleon,

while she apparently intends to accuse only herself; and she entreats him with genuine eloquence.

In the foregoing lines I have stated facts; and the letters are copies of genuine epistles which are still in my possession. Had Mrs. ——— contemplated the greatest monarch of the world, driven away like an eagle to the top of a sea-beaten rock, as forsaken, forlorn, and unable to flutter out of his nest, she would not probably, in her ambition, have imagined him to be her husband, nor would she have thought that she saw her 'Dear Napoleon' in the writer.

Philadelphia, June 12, 1817.

ART. VI.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, and Politics.*

UNDER this head, we propose, in future, to insert a collection of various matter in every department of knowledge. There are many articles in foreign Magazines, which would both edify and amuse our readers;—but which are, in general, too short to deserve a distinct and separate place in our pages. Many pieces of intelligence respecting our own country, also, seem to deserve a more permanent repository than our ephemeral newspapers. And we design, in short, to present our readers, every month, with a compendious view of the most interesting philosophical, literary, and political news, from both sides of the Atlantic. For this purpose we have chosen the title—*Notoria*—which, as our readers know, was the name given to the periodical dispatches received at Rome from the various quarters of her Empire. Such dispatches we should be grateful to receive from our own countrymen, in the various parts of the United States.

Steam-Engines and Steam-Boats.

THE frequent accidents of a very alarming and fatal nature that have occurred, within these two years, from the bursting of steam-engine boilers, threaten to bring into discredit, one of the most useful inventions of modern science; inventions, too, in which this country claims no small share of honour. But if passengers cannot set their foot into a steam-boat, without apprehension, (and reasonable apprehension too) of being blown overboard, or scalded to death, we do not see but that these useful inventions must be given up; for no prudent person will expose himself

to the danger that attends them. Three or four days ago, the passengers in a steam-boat-line from Baltimore, were left at Wilmington to shift for themselves; owing to some accident or too much wear and tear of the boiler. The passengers, who performed their part of the contract at Baltimore, by paying the fare demanded, were thus compelled to undergo the trouble and expense of travelling by land instead of water, from the sheer ignorance, the carelessness, or something worse, of the managers of that concern, who ought to have been aware of the accident, and apprised the passengers of it at Baltimore. It is not worth the while of an individual passenger to seek redress by law;—and hence the persons who undertake to convey passengers may practise almost any imposition with impunity; but the bursting of steam-engine-boilers, by which the lives of our citizens are destroyed, their limbs mutilated, or even their persons put in jeopardy, ought to be made a criminal offence, and punished by heavy fine and imprisonment, as well as by liability to civil action; for such an accident never does occur, but through culpable carelessness.

Dangerous accidents happen, or may happen, from steam-engine-boilers, owing to one or other of the following causes:

1st. From the too frequent use of high-pressure engines. 2dly. From loading the steam valve too high. 3dly. From cast-iron boilers in whole or in part. 4thly. From permitting the boilers to be too long in use without renewing.

First—In Boulton and Watt's specification, as early as 1764; or 1769, I forget which, provision was made for the use of high-pressure engines, by which the heated steam might be let off into the atmosphere, without condensation, if this method should be thought best; but Boulton and Watt have constantly rejected this plan of a steam-engine, as not being calculated ultimately to save expense, and as being unsafe, especially in the hands to which the management of boilers and fires are usually entrusted. I believe it has never been known, that any boiler has burst, or any person been injured, by an engine on their construction, worked in the usual manner. They have certainly enjoyed more experience on the subject, than any men in Europe; and they still make their engines on the original construction, so far as the temperature of the steam is concerned; seldom working, I believe, with more than from two to five pounds upon the square inch.

Mr. Fulton, who had an opportunity of seeing engines of all descriptions, never used a high-pressure engine: and not very long before his death had promised to give orders for a small engine, constructed expressly to show that the high-pressure engines were not preferable in point of economy. He worked on the principle of Boulton and Watt, by using light pressure on the safety valve. No accident has ever happened, or any injury been done to a passenger, by means of his engines, or on board any of the boats built under his direction, so far as I know. No doubt, an ignorant, or a careless, or a mischievous engineer may occasion danger, by overloading the safety valve of any engine; but he must act contrary to his instructions, if he does so. We have a right to consider *Fulton* as high authority.

In London, a Mr. Trevethick first used the high-pressure engines; in which, the steam being heated much higher than in Boulton and Watt's engines, the safety valve was much more loaded. Two dreadful explosions brought these engines into disuse. A late patent for some improvements has been taken out by Mr. Trevethick; but the majority of engines now erected in Great Britain are on the construction of Boulton and Watt, with the improve-

ments either of Mr. Woolfe, or those of Mr. Clegg. Mr. Woolfe's method of working the waste steam under another piston is certainly a great and real advantage; though not well calculated for the small space allowed in a steam-boat. The calculations, as to the power gained by heating steam to various degrees of the thermometer, we owe to Mr. Dalton, M. Betancour, Professor Robinson, and Mr. Woolfe. No experiments, on this subject, have been made, or at least published, by any person whatever in this country.

Mr. Oliver Evans, of this city, whose patent is subsequent to Trevethick's, has adopted the plan of high-pressure engines; by which means steam is heated so as to work with a hundred and fifty pounds or more on the square inch: a rate at which I have been told his engine at the Schuylkill Bridge, frequently, if not generally, works. It is certain, that expense is saved in the first cost of the machinery on this plan;—room is saved; and, where water is scarce, less of it is required than on the plan of Boulton and Watt; but then danger is increased; the strain on the works is augmented; the wear and tear is far greater; the packing is often burnt; and the ultimate expense of fuel is as much—while that of machinery is probably far more. I do not apprehend that fuel is saved; for the expense of fuel employed to produce the same power is not more in a well constructed engine of Boulton and Watt's than in Trevethick's. The engine on Boulton and Watt's plan, erected under the same roof with Mr. Oliver Evans' at Schuylkill, may well be found fault with in point of construction; so that it is impossible to make a fair experiment with it. The plan and size of the boiler and the fire-place of that engine are liable to great objections; at least I have heard good judges make these remarks. Mr. Evans' cylindrical boilers are certainly well calculated to bear great pressure; and he has shown much judgment in the form he has adopted. But, suppose a *careless* manager attending a high-pressure engine, to feed the fire, and to work the engine itself:—Does such a case never happen? Suppose bad sheet-iron, or bad workmanship in the boiler:—does such a case never happen? Is not all American

sheet-iron, as yet, very inferior? Suppose an accumulation of sediment adhering to the bottom of the boiler:—Is the case uncommon? Suppose an engine a long time worked, and the materials worn, and thin:—will not this happen of course, if not frequently renewed? Suppose the packing burnt away by the violent heat of the steam, and no leisure to renew it? Suppose, I say, any, or all of these not very improbable cases, would my reader, under these circumstances, prefer being in a boat, worked by an engine where the sides of the boiler are pressed on by a force of five pounds to the inch, or in one of a hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds? Let it be remembered, that whatever the pressure is on the safety valve, the same is the pressure on every part of the inside of the boiler. A man may stand against a stroke inflicted with the force of three or four pounds only,—but would be killed outright by one of two hundred. Hence I conclude, that, although high-pressure engines may be rendered capable of working safely and uniformly, they are not, upon the whole, so safe on board a steam-boat, as those used by Fulton; and that theory and experiment both speak the same language in this respect. The writer of this article is neither directly nor indirectly concerned in any steam-boat or steam-engine, of this, or of that, or of any construction. He is induced to offer these remarks solely with a view of having the subject considered; in order that the lives of the good citizens of the United States may not be put in jeopardy by any kind of ignorance, carelessness, or parsimony; and that an useful invention may not fall into disrepute, from the fault of those who use it.

I repeat it, we want a law to make every accident of the kind referred to *criminal*; for it is really so. No accident need happen, unless, as the lawyers say, through the act of God or the king's enemies. If an engineer, wanting to run a race, overloads his steam valve, and knows that by so doing he puts to hazard the lives of the passengers, if death ensues, I aver that this is murder, in the eye of the law.

Secondly—Accidents happen from loading the safety valve too high. It is said (I do not know the fact) that the

late dreadful accident on the Mississippi, was owing to loading the valve beyond reasonable bounds, in order to overtake another boat. A manager of a steam engine, who thus wantonly sports with the lives of the passengers, and a stage-coachman, who overturns a carriage by running a race, ought to be punished to the extent of the law: and I hope the time will soon come when the law will know no distinction between stabbing a man with a poignard, and breaking his neck in a stage, or blowing him up with a steam engine. In England, there is hardly an assize without heavy damages given against stage coach proprietors, for injuries to passengers.

Thirdly—Accidents cannot fail to happen in high-pressure engines, when the valve is too much loaded; and economy, as is the case sometimes in England at least, and probably in our country, induces the owners to use cast iron for the boiler, or a cast-iron top. Such a material, if the boiler bursts, acts like the splinters on board a vessel of war; it is burst into small pieces, each of which acts like a cannon-shot, to the great danger of those exposed to the explosion.

Fourthly—Accidents in high-pressure engines are sure to happen, if the boilers are not frequently examined and renewed. As I have already remarked, the sides of a worn-out boiler may bear a pressure of two pounds, when they will burst with two hundred. But even if a worn boiler should burst with steam, loaded only with the common pressure of Boulton and Watt's engines, little harm can be done. What happens in the other case we know too well.

Sir, I hope these remarks will excite some reflexion, on a subject of much importance, and at present of great alarm.

A. B.

Philad. June 5, 1817.

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To the Editor of the European Magazine.

SIR—Having recently visited the Island of Elba, I had the curiosity to go to the country house of the *ci-devant* Emperor Napoleon; I found he had chosen a very pretty spot, situated in a valley about two miles to the westward of Porto Ferrajo; from the house was

a beautiful prospect, commanding at once a view of Porto Ferrajo, the Works, and the Bay. The ground floor consisted of a suit of four rooms, very small, but neat, in the upper story (it consisted only of two) were seven rooms, the largest of which appeared to be the saloon; the walls were richly ornamented with Egyptian figures, the floor was of marble, and over the mantle piece was a painting representing a Cossack and a Turk in single combat; the whole of the apartments must have appeared elegant when furnished completely; in one of the rooms on the ground floor was a bath, immediately over which, was a painting representing a female figure, in a reclining posture, loosely arrayed, with a mirror in the left hand; and underneath the figure was the following motto, QVI. ODIT. VERITATEM. ODIT. LVCEM. SALOM. LIBII. SAP. By giving the above insertion in your most valuable Miscellany, I hope to induce some of your learned Correspondents to give a definition of the emblematical affinity between Napoleon, the bath, female figure, and motto; which will greatly oblige

Your obedient servant,
CURIOSO.

Jan. 21st, 1817.

PARISIAN ANECDOTES.

Madame de Stael and Mr. Canning.

MR. CANNING, a few days ago, at the house of M. Goltz, met Madame de Stael. The impertinent manner of the ambassador to Portugal is well known—he took the liberty to censure the Emperor Alexander; Madame de Stael defended him.—‘Madam you do not like the English?’ ‘Yes, sir, in their own country.’—‘Tell me now, madam,—you wish you were rid of us all?’ ‘Not exactly so; but I think it would be well if you were to stay at Paris, and send your troops home.’—‘Why so?’ ‘Because they may be wanted, and perhaps Mr. Canning may not.’—‘Madam, you are angry because we possess your fortified places?’ ‘I am.’—‘Madam, after such a revolution, it was necessary to punish the nation.’ ‘Punish a nation, sir! it is to punish a mighty river, which will sweep the impotent insulter with it in its course to the ocean.’

French Curiosity.

The *Badauds* of Paris yield not to the cockneys of London in staring, and ‘making a sight’ of every thing. A few days ago the footman of Lady P***, who is in deep mourning, made his appearance in the Palais Royal, little supposing that he himself should be, for the moment, the greatest curiosity of the place, the great vulgar and the small flocked round him, watched every motion, and wondered who he could be: at least he was a colonel—this was evident by his ‘two epaulettes’ (shoulder knots;) but of what nation? his hat and his walk were English; but the French had never seen an English regiment dressed in black: in fact, John was a *rara avis in Terris*—no one could guess to what army he belonged, and none dared put the question to him, for such impertinence might be deemed a gross insult to—perhaps a prince! As great curiosity was excited, and ungratified, the appearance of the illustrious stranger was thus announced in the journals of the next day.—‘A young man, whom, from his face and his walk, we took for an Englishman, attracted, the day before yesterday, at the Palais Royal, the attention of the multitude by the regularity (singularity) of his costume—dressed in mourning, from head to foot; he wore *two large epaulettes*, of black worsted, which, with the round shape of his hat, formed a burlesque contrast. Otherwise, far from having an air of embarrassment, the young man appeared proud of the curiosity of our idlers, and showed himself to them very complaisantly.’

[*Journal de Paris*, Sept. 15, 1816.]

Striking Contrasts.

The French display, on numerous occasions, the most striking contrasts of splendour and wretchedness, of pride and meanness. In London, the opening of a shop will ruin the character of a whole street in the eye of fashion; in Paris it is different, the most splendid palaces are found in narrow, dark, and dirty streets, filled with shops of the lowest order; even in the good street of the Faubourg St. Honore it is the same: for example, the address of the British ambassador is—‘His excellency the English ambassador, next door

to the cooper-smith, Rue Faubourg, St. Honore, a Paris! What would you think in England of a noble marquis calling, in a public coffee-room, for a cup of coffee, of the value of five pence, and very coolly emptying the sugar-basin into his pocket! Yet this is done every day in Paris by all ranks; the argument is this—'what the waiter brings I have a right to use in my coffee, and consequently I have a right to put it in my pocket.'—*Month. Mag.*

Remarkable Anecdote relating to a Young Turk.

A famous general in the Muscovite service having come to Paris for the recovery of his wounds, brought along with him a young Turk, whom he had taken prisoner. Some of the doctors of the Sorbonne (who are always together as positive as the dervises of Constantinople), thinking it a pity that the poor Turk should be damned for want of instruction, solicited Mustapha very hard to turn Christian, and promised, for his encouragement, plenty of good wine in this world, and Paradise in the next. These allurements were too powerful to be resisted; and therefore, having been well instructed and catechized, he at last agreed to receive the sacraments of baptism and the Lord's supper. The priest, however, to make every thing sure and solid, still continued his instructions, and began his catechism next day with the usual question,—'How many Gods are there?'—'None at all,' replied Benedict, for that was his new name. 'How! none at all!' cried the priest.—'To be sure,' said the honest proselyte; 'you have told me all along that there is but one God, and yesterday I eat him.'—*Eu. Mag.*

To the Editor of the Asiatic Journal.

SIR,—As it may probably be the fate of many of your readers in this country to traverse the Atlantic, a slight account of the ceremony attendant on crossing the line, may not prove uninteresting. I transcribe it from a Journal as experienced by myself and many fellow-passengers in an outward bound Indiaman a few years since.

I am, &c. Z.

When the decreasing degrees of latitude announce the ship's approach to the equator, it is truly ludicrous to re-

mark the satisfaction with which all the crew, those only excepted who have not crossed it before, prepare the paraphernalia used on the occasion. Canvass, ropes, and hen-coops, are in less than a week transformed into masks, sea weed, and thrones, and honoured by the appearance of the crew; who by means of paint of different colours, with which they plentifully besmear their bodies, make as far as one can guess, pretty correct representations of the watery deities they are meant to personate.

As it was night when we passed this imaginary line, Neptune only then hailed us; which is to say, that a person, generally the boatswain, habited to represent Neptune, pretends to rise from the sea, and calling through a trumpet desires to know what ship it is that dares intrude on his dominions? The officer of the watch immediately through another trumpet replies, that it is the ship ———, which having many of his visitors* on board, entreats a favourable voyage. The answer returned is, that he will visit the ship early in the morning. Accordingly, he arrives in a triumphal car, supported by his attendants. It draws up before the Cuddy door, and having delivered a speech to the ladies, signifying his will that they should be excused the operation, he retires, and taking his station with his barber, the ceremony commences. There were twelve of us on board to be shaved; and having a list of our names he called us as suited his pleasure. All those who have not crossed, are compelled to remain below till called for, when conducted by two of his attendants (or as they are termed, constables), with a handkerchief tied across your eyes, you are led by these people to his serene majesty; who, after inquiring from whence you come, for what reasons you are proceeding to India, and a few other equally trivial questions, desires his barber to do his duty. Accordingly, being seated on a board placed across a large tub full of water, your chin and lips are of a sudden besmeared with tar; of which having put *quantum sufficit*, he pretends to shave it off with a piece of an iron hoop, notched as a saw. This

* Or in the technical phrase 'those who are to be shaved.'

being done, the board on which you sit is dexterously slipped from under you, and you are plunged head and heels into the tub; from which having emerged as well as you can, and the handkerchief taken from your eyes, you are saluted on all sides with tubs of water, by those who have crossed before, and who, enjoying the fun, are mostly stationed on the poop for the express purpose. This is continued until you seize a tub, and pelt again in your own defence. Thus ends this absurd and ridiculous ceremony, which, without the intervention of the captain, no passenger to India, should he not previously have crossed the line, can possibly avoid. Our captain chose, in this instance, to sacrifice the comfort of his passengers to complaisance to his crew; and although money was offered them to avoid it, we were compelled to undergo the ceremony in all its degradation.*

MR. EDITOR, (of the *New Mon. Mag.*)

THE following extracts in answer to the 'MISCELLANEOUS INQUIRIES' (vol. vi. p. 33,) may perhaps be acceptable to Y. Z. and M. J. H—.

'Whence came the custom of pledging one another when men drink?'

'Edward, King of the West Saxons, styled the 'Martyr,' had, according to some historians, reached the fifteenth, by others, only the twelfth, year of his age, when he was crowned at Kingston-upon-Thames, by the celebrated Archbishop Dunstan, who had warmly espoused his cause, in opposition to Elfrida, his step-mother, whose ambition prompted her to strive for the succession of his half and younger brother Ethelred.

'Edward lived four years after his accession, and there passed nothing memorable during his reign. His death alone was memorable and tragical. He was hunting one day in Dorsetshire, on the 18th of March, 978, and being

led by the chase near Corfe Castle, where Elfrida resided, he took the opportunity of paying her a visit, unattended by any of his retinue; and he thereby presented her with the opportunity which she had so long wished for. After he had mounted his horse, he desired some liquor to be brought him: while he was holding the cup in his hand, a servant of Elfrida approached him, and gave him a stab behind. The prince, finding himself wounded, put spurs to his horse; but becoming faint by the loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, his foot stuck in the stirrup, and he was dragged along by his uaruly horse till he expired. Being tracked by the blood, his body was found, and was privately interred at Wareham by his servants. The youth and innocence of this prince, with his tragical death, begat such compassion among the people, that they believed miracles to be wrought at his tomb, and gave him the appellation of 'Martyr,'* though his murder had no connexion with any religious principle or opinion.'

'This foul and wicked murder of the youthful and unsuspecting monarch, struck the whole nation with horror and dismay. No man considered himself safe, after so dreadful a violation of hospitality; and every means were resorted to, whereby to testify their detestation of the deed. Hard drinking, the then prevailing vice of the people, gave way before the danger attending its indulgence. No man would trust himself in the unguarded posture of drinking, without some security from the much dreaded stroke of treachery. Hence, as we learn from William of Malmebury, each man required the protection of his neighbour, before he would venture, in society, to lift to his lips the much-prized 'wassail,' or 'wish-health-bowl;' and hence arose, as we are told by the same authority, the familiar expression of 'pledging,' yet retained in common usage, when one friend passes the compliment to another of pledging, or desiring him first to partake of the social glass.

'Many authors attribute the origin of this term to the Danes, who, when

* I have heard that a passenger recovered, in the Supreme court in Calcutta, considerable damages from a captain, for not protecting him against this outrage. And I know that some have been indebted to the long voyage from the line to their ultimate destination that they have not been called on to give personal satisfaction.

* The 18th of March is consecrated a festival, as may be still seen by reference to the calendar.

they had subdued England, were in the abominable practice of assassinating the natives, while in the act of drinking; but the best antiquarians lean to the former opinion.'—BRADY'S *Clavis Calendaria*, vol. 1., p. 258.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

SIR—I have sent for insertion in your valuable magazine the following account of a nest of ants, which, perhaps, may be interesting to some of your numerous readers, who are fond of the study of natural history.

During a short stay last month at Malvern Wells, in Worcestershire, I observed, in climbing one of the hills, a long bare place, which ran diagonally across a smooth grass walk, which had been made for the accommodation of those who visited the wells. This bare place or path was entirely filled with ants, which were running backwards and forwards, apparently very busy in search of food. The path seemed to be between nine and ten feet in length, and about two inches in breadth, and terminated at the lower extremity in a bed of nettles and long grass; and none of the ants deviated at all from the path till they reached this point, when they separated, and went different ways. Those which returned with food in their mouths deposited it in the nest, which was at the other end. I observed many of them returning from the nest with something in their mouths, which, upon closer inspection, I found to be their young, which they were taking out, for the purpose, as I concluded, of exposing them to the air and sun. When they had proceeded about one-third of the way down the path, they deposited their charge upon the grass, and returned to the nest, in all probability to fetch more of their young. I watched several of the ants one by one from the nest, and found that they went an immense way in search of food. I kept my eye upon one in particular for some time, and at length saw it take up a dead fly, with which it was returning to the nest; but when it had proceeded about half way up the path it was overtaken by another ant, which seemed also to be returning, but which had not been so successful as that whose motions I had been observing: a contest

instantly ensued, in which the one that had made the attack succeeded in getting possession of the dead fly, which it carried triumphantly to the nest, whilst the other returned in search of something else, ashamed to enter the nest without contributing to the general stock. Upon examining the nest closer, I observed several of the ants that appeared to be wandering beyond the nest, a circumstance which I had not before noticed. I followed them with my eye, and found that there was another path, formed by them amongst the loose stones and sand of the hill; and, upon ascending a little higher, I found it was as much thronged with them as the path below. I traced them for about 250 or 300 yards, when to my great surprise, I discovered an immense nest of about fourteen yards in circumference, in which I beheld such myriads of these little creatures that my eyes were actually dazzled with looking at them. The nest was composed of small bits of dry grass, bark of trees, fern leaves, &c. all of them cut into little shreds of about one quarter of an inch in length. The entrances into it were innumerable, and thronged with the busy tribe. Wishing to ascertain the depth of the nest, I thrust my stick into it, and found that, for about a foot and a half, it was composed of these dry leaves, &c. and upon turning this up I saw all the young and food deposited amongst the small loose stones of which that part of the hill was composed. I did not dare to remain long near the nest, for I found myself entirely covered from head to foot in the space of two minutes. The next morning I found the breach which I had made the night before completely repaired, and also a dead mole, which I had thrown into the nest, entirely consumed. I endeavoured to find if there were any other paths which led from the nest, but I could not discover any. There were a great number of ant hills made by the *Formica rubra* or red ant, all around this nest, some within ten or twelve feet; but the ants of both species seemed to keep quite distinct, and never to interfere with each other. I brought several of the ants home with me; and, and, upon examination, they appear to me to be the *Formica herculeana*, or horse ant of

Linnaeus: but I do not conceive they are peculiar to that part of the country in which I saw them.

J. D. STRUTT.

Derby, August 12, 1816.

Mr. Urban, (Editor of the Gentleman's Magazine.)

MAY I through the medium of your valuable Miscellany, inform such persons as feel an interest in whatever remains still exist of those who have been an honour and ornament to their country, that, having lately been at Binfield, in Berkshire, I there had the satisfaction of beholding the identical wood to which Pope used to resort as his favourite lounge, and where many lines, perhaps, of the Windsor Forest had their birth. It consists entirely of beech trees, remarkably tall, large, and straight; and stands on the side of a hill, sloping on every side but the West, on which it rises. It may be called an open wood, as the trees are not very close together, and their side branches and (I am sorry to add) tops have been lopped; nevertheless, they are still handsome trees, and it was with the greatest regret I heard that there was a great probability of their being all taken down. Perhaps they are in number about fifty, but I speak entirely from guess. One tree more hallowed than the rest, has been spared as to its top, and by that it may be distinguished by any stranger seeking for it, in the centre of the wood. On this tree, about twelve feet from the ground, (I speak again from guess) are cut with a knife in very large letters, and evidently a great while ago, (I imagine by Pope himself) these sacred words; **HERE POPE SUNG.** What axe would not recoil from such a stem? what barbarous unfeeling avarice could lay prostrate so well-authenticated a living monument of Pope's own confidence in the regard which posterity would have for any thing so naturally connected with his feelings, his habits, his poems, and his love of fame? I can conceive no object more truly worthy of the adoration of the antiquary and the man of letters. I would prefer this tree, while it stood, to the noblest monument that sculpture or masonry could raise. It is to rescue this tree and its brethren from the fate I was told the

recent enclosure (and probably the change of property consequent thereon) was likely to bring them to, that I have ventured to trouble you with this letter; hoping it may meet some eye able and willing to propose a measure of protection and safety for an object which I confess interests me far beyond what I have been able to express. As I walked the wood and parish, it was impossible not to recal such few lines of our immortal bard as a feeble memory could retrace. Often and often did I repeat (with a mournful application to himself of what he had composed for others:)

'Here his first lays majestic Denham sung,

Here the last numbers flow'd from Cowley's tongue.'

Denham's thought, also, frequently obtruded itself:

'For as Courts make not Kings, but Kings the Court,

So where the Muses and their train resort

Parnassus is. *If I can be to thee
A Poet, thou Parnassus art to me.*

For this English Parnassus, then, I implore the interest of the powerful, and the compassion of the wealthy. For myself, should a subscription be opened to case this tree in gold (but seriously I mean, to buy the ground and fence the wood,) I would gladly contribute my mite. On crossing Lodon bridge I verified the epithets of
'The Lodon slow with verdant alders crown'd.'

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

SIR—I was exceedingly amused with the article on Animal Sagacity in your Magazine for December; such instances bring the animal very close to the human species, in reason and good conduct; it almost traces an affinity to mankind—much more so, certainly, than would be done by any pedigree or other effort to demonstrate a genealogy. They are nearly as surprising as that anecdote related (by Goldsmith I believe,) of a venerable dog, who had been brought up and instructed in the family of a strict Roman Catholic, and who, at the close of his life, was sent across the channel into Wales, to finish his days in the family of a Protestant. Such, however, was the force of pre-

cept and example, (some would call it conscience, and a sense of duty), that nothing, from the moment he entered the Protestant circle, would tempt him to eat meat, either on Fridays or Saturdays.

But I think, Mr. Editor, I can give you an instance of sagacity in the canine breed more astonishing far than that, or any other, it ever was my chance to hear: it was related to me, I assure you, as an undeniable fact, and names of persons and places attended the relation of it; my author was a Prussian officer, who, a little time back, visited this metropolis, and it was my lot to hand him about, and show him the curiosities. A German count had a very valuable dog, a large and noble-looking animal; in some description of field-sports he was reckoned exceedingly useful, and a friend of the count's applied for the loan of the dog for a few weeks' excursion in the country: it was granted; and, in the course of the rambles, the dog, by a fall, either dislocated or gave a severe fracture to one of his legs. The borrower of the dog was in the greatest alarm, knowing well how greatly the count valued him; and, fearing to disclose the fact, brought him secretly to the count's surgeon, a skilful man, to restore the limb. After some weeks' application, the surgeon succeeded, the dog was returned, and all was well. A month or six weeks after this period, the surgeon was sitting gravely in his closet, pursuing his studies, when he heard a violent scratching at the bottom of the door; he rose, and, on opening it, to his surprise, he saw the dog, his late patient, before him, in company with another dog, who had broken his leg, and was thus brought by his friend to be cured in the same manner.

I have heard before now a farmer say, that he had a horse in his stable, who always, on losing his shoe, went of his own accord to a farrier's shop, a mile off; but I never yet heard of a horse taking another horse to a farrier for the purpose. In the case of the dogs, there must have been a communication of ideas; they must have come to a conclusion before they set out; they must have reasoned together on the way, discussing the merits of the surgeon, and the nature of the wound.

Gray's-Inn, Dec. 1816. T. B.

An Account of the Shepherds of the Landes, in the South of France. In a Letter to the Editor (of the Journal of Science and the Arts,) from THOMAS MATNARD, Esq.

London, Nov. 12, 1816.

MY DEAR SIR—The accompanying figure represents a shepherd of the Landes, or desert in the south of France. This tract of country lies between the mouths of the Adour and the Gironde, along the sea-coast, and, according to tradition, was once the bed of the sea itself, which flowed in as far as Dax.* Through this district the guards marched from Bayonne, at the conclusion of the war in June, 1814, to embark at Bourdeaux. This afforded us an opportunity of seeing a country seldom visited by travellers. It is a bed of sand, flat, in the strictest sense of the word, and abounding with extensive pine woods. These woods afford turpentine, resin, and charcoal, for trade, as well as a sort of candles, used by the peasantry, made of yarn dipt in the turpentine. The road is through the sand, unaltered by art, except where it is so loose and deep as to require the trunks of the fir-trees to be laid across, to give it firmness. The villages and hamlets stand on spots of fertile ground, scattered like islands among the sands. The appearance of a corn-field on each side of the road; fenced by green hedges, a clump of trees at a little distance, and the spire of a rustic church tapering from among them, gave notice of our approach to an inhabited spot. On entering the villages, we found neat white cottages, scattered along a bit of green, surrounded by well cultivated gardens and orchards, and shaded by fine old oaks and walnuts. Through the centre of the village, a brook of the clearest water was always seen running amongst meadows and hay-fields, and forming a most grateful contrast to the heat and dust of the sandy road. It was between the villages of Castel and La Benharre that we first saw these shepherds, mounted on stilts, and striding, like

* This is not the only change. The river Adour also has altered its course: the old bed of the river is marked by an extensive lake and morass to the north of the present course, and along the high road to Dax.

storks, along the flat. These stilts raise them from three to five feet: the foot rests on a surface, adapted to its sole, carved out of the solid wood; a flat part, shaped to the outside of the leg, and reaching to below the bend of the knee, is strapped round the calf and ankle. The foot is covered by a piece of raw sheep's hide. In these stilts they move with perfect freedom, and astonishing rapidity; and they have their balance so completely, that they run, jump, stoop, and even dance, with ease and safety. We made them run races for a piece of money, put on a stone on the ground, to which they pounced down with surprising quickness. They cannot stand quite still, without the aid of a long staff, which they always carry in their hands. This guards them against any accidental trip, and when they wish to be at rest, forms a third leg, that keeps them steady. The habit of using the stilts is acquired early, and it appeared that the smaller the boy was, the longer it was necessary to have his stilts. By means of these odd additions to the natural leg, the feet are kept out of the water, which lies deep during winter on the sands, and from the heated sand during the summer: in addition to which, the sphere of vision over so perfect a flat is materially increased by the elevation, and the shepherd can see his sheep much farther on stilts than he could from the ground. This department of France is little known, and if what I have here related be as new to your readers as it was to me at the time I first saw them, this description may possibly afford them some amusement.

I remain, dear sir, &c. &c.

THOS. MAYNARD.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

SIR—The following pathetic narrative is extracted from 'The History of the Inquisition, abridged from the elaborate work of Philip Limborch;' a work of which the great John Locke said, 'that it was fit to be translated into the vulgar language of every nation, that all might understand the anti-christian practices of that execrable court.'

An account of the proceedings of the Court of Inquisition at Lisbon, against Elizabeth Vasconellos, an English woman.

Elizabeth Vasconellos, now in the city of Lisbon, doth, on the 10th of December, Anno 1706, in the presence of John Milner, Esq. her majesty's consul-general of Portugal, and Joseph Willcocks, minister of the English factory at Lisbon, declare and testify:—That she was born at Arlington, in the county of Devon, and a daughter of John Chester, Esq.; bred up in the church of England; and, in the eleventh year of her age, her uncle, David Morgan, of Cork, intending to go and settle in Jamaica as a physician, by her father's consent, he having several children, took her with him to provide for her.

In 1685, they went in an English ship, and near the island they were attacked by two Turkish ships; in the fight her uncle was killed, but the ship got clear into Madeira, and she, though left destitute, was entertained by Mr. Bedford; a merchant, with whom, and other English, she lived as a servant till 1696; in that year she was married, by the chaplain of an English man of war, to Cordoza de Vasconellos, a physician of that island, and lived with him eight years, and never in the least conformed to the Romish church.

In 1704, her husband, having gone on a voyage to Brazil, she fell dangerously ill, and, being light-headed, a priest gave her the sacrament, as she was told afterwards, for she remembered nothing of it. It pleased God she recovered, and then they told her she had changed her religion, and must conform to the Romish church, which she denied, and refused to conform; and thereupon, by the bishop of that island, she was imprisoned nine months, and then sent prisoner to the inquisition at Lisbon, where she arrived the 19th of December, 1705. The secretary of the house took her effects, in all above 500l. sterling; she was then sworn, that that was all she was worth: and then put into a straight dark room, about five feet square, and there kept nine months and fifteen days.

That the first nine days she had only

bread and water, and a wet straw bed to lie on. On the ninth day, being examined, she owned herself a Protestant, and would so continue; she was told, she had conformed to the Romish church, and must persist in it or burn; she was then remanded to her room, and, after a month's time, brought out again; and, persisting in her answer as to her religion, they bound her hands behind her, stripped her back naked, and lashed her with a whip of knotted cords a considerable time; and told her afterwards, that she must kneel down to the court, and give thanks for their merciful usage of her; which she positively refused to do.

After fifteen days she was again brought forth and examined; and, a crucifix being set before her, she was commanded to bow down to it and worship it, which she refused to do; they told her that she must expect to be condemned to the flames, and be burnt with the Jews at the next *auto de fe*, which was nigh at hand. Upon this she was remanded to her prison again for thirty days; and, being then brought out, a red-hot iron was got ready, and brought to her in a chaffing dish of burning coals; and, her breast being laid open, the executioner, with one end of the red-hot iron, which was about the bigness of a large seal, burnt her to the bone in three several places, on the right side, one hard by the other; and then sent her to her prison, without any plaster, or other application to heal the sores, which were very painful to her.

A month after this she had another severe whipping, as before; and in the beginning of August she was brought before the Table, a great number of inquisitors being present, and was questioned whether she would profess the Romish religion or burn? She replied, she had always been a Protestant, and was a subject of the Queen of England, who was able to protect her, and she doubted not would do it, were her condition known to the English residing in Lisbon; but, as she knew nothing of that, her resolution was to continue a Protestant, though she were to burn for it. To this they answered, that her being the Queen of England's subject signified nothing in the dominions of the King of Portugal; that the English residing in Lisbon were heretics, and would certainly be damned; and that it

was the mercy of that tribunal to endeavour to rescue her out of the flames of hell; but, if her resolution were to burn rather than profess the Romish religion, they would give her a trial of it before hand: accordingly the officers were ordered to seat her in a fixed chair, and to bind her arms and her legs, that she could make do resistance nor motion, and the physician being placed by her, to direct the court how far they might torture her without hazard of her life, her left foot was made bare, and an iron slipper, red-hot, being immediately brought in, her foot was fastened into it, which continued on, burning her to the bone, till such time as, by extremity of pain, she fainted away; and, the physician declaring her life was in danger, they took it off, and ordered her again to prison.

On the 19th of August she was again brought out, and whipped after a cruel manner, and her back was all over torn; and her being threatened with more and greater tortures, and, on the other hand, being promised to be set at liberty if she would subscribe such a paper as they should give her, though she could have undergone death, yet not being able to endure a life of so much misery, she consented to subscribe as they would have her; and accordingly, as they directed, wrote at the bottom of a large paper, which contained she knew not what; after which they advised her to avoid the company of all English heretics; and, not restoring to her any thing of all the plate, goods, or money, she brought in with her, and engaging her by oath to keep secret all that had been done to her, turned her out of doors, destitute of all relief, but what she received from the help and compassion of charitable Christians.

The above-said Elizabeth Vasconellos did solemnly affirm and declare the above written deposition to be true, the day and year above written.

JOHN MILNE.

JOSEPH WILCOCKS.

Lisbon, Jan. 8, 1707, N. S.

A copy, examined from the original by J. BLISSÉ.

The above *unholy tribunal and cruel piece of legitimacy*, is restored, with all its horrors and ramifications, in the dominions of our worthy ally the King of Spain, by a decree dated in July, 1814.

October 10, 1818.

MR. URBAN—The spots observable on the sun's disk, in conjunction with the wet summer, have been the subject of much speculation, and have excited considerable alarm. They have been dreaded even more than the appearance of the most portentous comet, about which, as supposed to influence our globe, only vague and undefined notions can be formed, while the baleful effects of the spots in question seem more direct, and can, it is imagined, be more distinctly ascertained; for it is very natural to infer that any opaque substance interposed between us and a luminous body must deprive us of a certain portion of its light and heat. Allow me, therefore, to submit, through the medium of your miscellany, a few observations, calculated, it is hoped, to dispel any gloomy apprehensions which may have been indulged on the subject, by convincing the reflecting mind that there is no cause for alarm.

In the first place it is worthy of remark, that similar spots have been observed in the sun for upwards of two centuries; and it is not improbable that they may be coeval even with the sun himself. For, as they were first discovered by Galileo, soon after the invention of his telescope, and have been observed at different periods ever since, it is a fair presumptive argument that such spots may have always existed. Who can doubt that the planet Herschell, and the other lately discovered planets, have existed for ages, though they were unknown prior to our own times? It is true these planets have a more definite and permanent character than the solar maculæ; but this is no proof that the latter have not always existed, any more than the variety in number and form of the clouds, occasionally passing over our earth, is a proof that such exhalations are not coeval with the earth itself.

Galileo observed a spot, which is computed to have been three times the extent of the surface of the earth, that is to have obscured about 600,000,000 of square miles of the sun's disk: this continued between two and three months. But Gasendus saw one still larger, namely, one-twentieth of the diameter of the sun, and visible to the naked eye. This spot consequently occupied an extent of above 1,500,000,000 of square miles; yet the solar light was

not perceptibly diminished, and therefore not the heat, as will more evidently appear in the course of these observations. The same Astronomer likewise observed above 40 spots of different sizes at once.

Of the nature of these spots nothing certain or satisfactory appears to be yet known; they have been supposed by some to be a kind of nebulous exhalation in the solar atmosphere. Dr. Wilson, of Edinburgh, thought they were caverns; and a French astronomer fancied they were mountains. The writer of these remarks does not pretend to determine which hypothesis is most probable; nor, indeed, is this at all necessary to his purpose, as it would make little or no difference in the conclusion he wishes to draw. If, however, he were to give his opinion in so dubious a case, it would, perhaps, be in favour of those who imagine the spots to be a kind of excavation of the luminous fluid supposed to envelop the opaque and solid body of the sun. This hypothesis seems to be countenanced by the nuclei of the spots, and the different phases they assume in their rotation. Yet it is difficult to conceive how a vacuum should be produced and continued so long in the fluid; for all fluids, whether elastic or non-elastic, have a strong tendency to find their level, and to fill up immediately any chasm made in them. It would be difficult to conceive how the atmosphere of our globe could be removed from any particular place, and the surrounding fluid prevented, for some weeks, from rushing in to supply the deficiency. It would be no less a miracle than the passage of the Israelites through the Red Sea, where 'the waters were a wall to them on the right hand and on the left.' The solar fluid, however, may be of such a volatile and expansive nature, that a small force may be sufficient to overcome its gravitation towards the centre.

But, leaving the solution of this difficult question to others who are better qualified for the task, let us proceed to consider, whether these spots, of what nature soever they may be, can have any influence on our globe.

Now, whether we regard the sun as an igneous body, or only the grand focus of the light and heat created at the beginning, which appears more probable, any partial obstructing substance.

though of the extent above mentioned, would not at all diminish the heat upon our globe, supposing the absolute solar heat to remain the same. For that obstructing body would not absorb and consume the heat it received, but would radiate it in every direction; so that there would be no absolute loss of heat. The only effect would be, an increase in its immediate vicinity, by the union of its rays with those which did not fall upon it; and a proportionate diminution as far as its shadow extended. This shadow would be a kind of cone, of a certain length, according to the diameter of the obstructing body, and its distance from the luminary. The heat beyond, that is, towards the earth, would be as great as if there had been no impediment, for it would have recovered its equability. A spot, one-twentieth of the sun's diameter, or about 44,000 miles diameter, if not rising higher than the sun's surface, would have no shadow at all. If this spot were in the form of a cube, and wholly above the sun's surface, and resting, as it were, upon it, the shadow, in this case, would only extend about 8000 miles; but, if in the shape of a globe, not half so far. This point, however, may perhaps be better illustrated by a more familiar example. Let us then imagine ourselves in a room where there is a fire twenty inches wide, and as many deep, and let us suppose a cubic inch of any opaque substance placed close to it, about the centre; this would bear nearly the same proportion to the fire that the spot observed by Gassendus did to the sun. Now can any one believe that the heat in the middle, or farthest part of the room, would be diminished after this substance was placed in that situation, especially after it had ceased to become hotter, and was of an equal temperature with the heat immediately surrounding it? There would, indeed, be rather less heat on the side of the obstructing substance farthest from the fire, though not extending the tenth of an inch; whilst the rest of the room would not be the least affected by it in any part. It is apparent then that the spots observed in the sun can have no influence on the heat of our globe, unless they could be supposed to diminish the absolute heat in the system. This, however, cannot be admitted. It is highly probable that the solar heat is a

substance *sui generis*, unlike any heat produced on our globe by chemical agency; and that a certain quantity of it was at first created, which has continued ever since, without either diminution or increase. This substance may concentrate about the sun more than about any of the other bodies in the system, not only on account of his superior bulk, but by reason of some peculiar attraction.

Having thus shown, to the satisfaction, it is hoped, of every unprejudiced mind, that the unfavourable season we have witnessed cannot have been occasioned by any diminution of solar heat, though we have certainly had less heat in this country than usual, let us inquire whether this diminution of heat be general on our globe, for, if not, that circumstance would of itself be sufficient to refute any argument drawn from the supposed influence of the spots in the sun. Now the fact appears to be, that while we have been complaining in this country of wet and cold, in Russia there has been a drought, which is enough to prove that this wet and cold season has been only partial. It is needless to inquire whether in the East Indies or Mexico there has been less heat than usual, or whether there has been a more severe winter towards the Antarctic Pole. Even here, this present month has been hitherto several degrees warmer than the corresponding part of the year 1813, a year not selected as being colder than others before or after it, but merely because the writer of these remarks happens to have in his possession a correct diary of the thermometer during that year alone.

We must look then for the causes of this wet and cold season, not to the sun, but to the earth itself. The removal of a considerable number of icy mountains, by tempestuous winds, from the neighbourhood of the Arctic Pole into more southerly latitudes in the Atlantic might occasion it. And it may have been observed, that the rain has generally come from the West; and that we have had dry and warm weather as soon as the wind has shifted to the east or north-east; that is, when the wind has blown from Russia, where there has been a drought, it has been fine; but when from the Atlantic it has been wet and cold. And this wet seems to have been expended in passing over Eng-

land, France, Germany, &c. and not to have travelled so far east as Russia.

Yours, &c.

METEOROLOGUS.

Pit-place, Epsom, Jan. 6, 1816.

MR. URBAN—Your correspondent, T. S. (vol. LXXXV. part II. p. 408.) mentions 'the marvellous account of Lord Lyttelton's death,' and wishes to see it 'authenticated.' Having bought Pit Place, where he died, I can give the following copy of a document in writing, left in the house as a heir-loom, which may be depended on. Having received much pleasure and instruction from your work for near forty years, I deem it my duty to assist, in however trifling a degree.

'Lord Lyttelton's Dream and Death' (see Admiral Wolseley's account.)—'I was at Pit Place, Epsom, when Lord Lyttelton died: Lord Fortescue, Lady Flood, and the two Miss Amphlett's, were also present. Lord Lyttelton had not been long returned from Ireland, and frequently had been seized with suffocating fits. He was attacked several times by them in the course of the preceding month. While in his house in Hill-street, Berkeley-square, he dreamt, three days before his death, 'he saw a bird fluttering, and afterwards a woman appeared' in white ap-

parel, and said, 'Prepare to die, you will not exist three days.' He was alarmed, and called his servant, who found him much agitated, and in a profuse perspiration. This had a visible effect, the next day, on his spirits. On the third day, while at breakfast with the above mentioned persons, he said, 'I have jockeyed the ghost, as this is the third day.' The whole party set off to Pit Place. They had not long arrived when he was seized with a usual fit; soon recovered; dined at five; to bed at eleven. His servant, about to give him rhubarb and mint-water, stirred it with a tooth-pick; which Lord Lyttelton perceiving, called him a 'slovenly dog,' and bid him bring a spoon. On the servant's return, he was in a fit. The pillow being high, his chin bore hard on his neck. Instead of relieving him, he ran for help; on his return found him dead.'

In Boswell's 'Life of Dr. Johnson,' (vol. IV. p. 313.) he said, 'It is the most extraordinary occurrence in my days. I heard it from Lord Westcote, his uncle—I am so glad to have evidence of the spiritual world, that I am willing to believe it.' Dr. Adams replied, 'You have evidence enough; good evidence, which needs no support.'

T. J.

Domestic Literary Intelligence.

THOMAS DAY, Esq., of Hartford, (Conn.) is preparing for publication, and will shortly put to press, a new edition of the third and subsequent volumes of Campbell's *Nisi Prius Reports*, with additional notes and references, upon the plan of his edition of Espinasse's Reports.

A Sketch of the Life, Last Sickness, and Death of Mrs. Mary Jane Grosvenor; left among the papers of the late Hon. Thomas P. Grosvenor—to be published by Coale and Maxwell, Baltimore.

We have read 'proposals for publishing, by subscription, a periodical

work, to be entitled *The Washington Museum, or Repository of Useful Arts*: devoted to the purpose of diffusing that kind of knowledge which is calculated to promote the arts and manufactures of the United States: a large portion of the work being employed in selecting, and displaying in a brief and comprehensive way, the best subjects of the Patent Office. By a Society of Gentlemen.' We think the undertaking deserves to be patronized.

The Emporium of Arts and Sciences, lately conducted by Judge Cooper, is to be revived.

We have now no hesitation in publishing the letter from St. Mary's College; though, agreeably to the author's request, we shall not subscribe his name. Our readers will see, that he has enumerated six objections to our sketch of St. Mary's; but they must

see, also, that there is hardly a shade of difference between his own account and ours. As to 'extensive advertising' and 'military despotism'—it is merely a difference about the meaning of the phrases. Great promises, extensively circulated—and military cen-

tinels stationed on the ramparts of a college—certainly seem to merit the names we found it necessary to give them. That there exist religious jealousies unfriendly to St. Mary's, we do not see denied; that this college has had liberal donations, is not contradicted; and that the institution has declined, our respected Correspondent seems to take for granted.—After all, we only say that the reasons we gave have been assigned as the causes of its declension; and can the managers of its concerns undertake to allege, that such reasons have not had a disadvantageous operation on its interests?

We have not said, that there is, in St. Mary's, a spirit of proselytism to the Catholic religion; but we know, that Protestants have entertained such an opinion; and we think our Correspondent rather admits it. It has even been thought, that the grand object of this seminary, is, to promote the Roman Catholic religion;—an opinion which we do not say is well founded. We have not asserted that there is any literary deficiency in St. Mary's; and we were as much surprised at Mr. Buté himself, to find that we had given his place to M. Du Bourgh. With these remarks we submit a literal transcript of our Correspondent's letter.

The Editors of the Analectic Magazine.
GENTLEMEN,

In the 'brief account of the American Colleges,' inserted in your number for April, you hold yourselves 'personally responsible' for the correctness of such statements as could not be ascertained from references 'to well known authors.' A degree, indeed, of responsibility must be felt by sensible editors, when they introduce or admit in their publications, any fact or observation which may affect the character and interest of the institutions concerned. For the better discharge of that responsibility, so properly and candidly acknowledged in this very case, we offer you these few remarks, respecting St. Mary's College in Baltimore, to be added to the 'brief account, &c.'

1. The 'extensive advertising' or any other effort to render the institution 'popular' indecorously attributed to St. Mary's College, is, certainly, for those to whom it is well known, perfectly in contrast with that highly independent character which has constantly been one of its peculiar features. Its nu-

merous friends have been uniformly, and still are, persons too respectable to have been so easily and so successfully influenced by mere inferior means and arts. If they have so zealously cherished and encouraged the institution it is because they have judged its real services worthy of their perseverant patronage. The insinuation has been strongly reprobated by them and the whole article considered as greatly improper.

2. The account refers to 1806 at the epoch of a 'declension' of the college which, in the manner it is represented and *explained*, might rather be considered at its doom—Whilst the truth is that if the college could not fail to experience the same vicissitudes to which the most ancient establishments, and even those supported by their respective states are subject; if during the war, it must have particularly suffered, it has since prospered anew, and it now contains above one hundred students. As for the character of its pupils, St. Mary's, considering its time of being and its peculiar circumstances, has certainly returned to society its due proportion of useful and honourable members. Literature and sciences, the fine arts and the learned progressions have welcomed a considerable number of these pupils. Of the many who have embraced the profession of physic, two have obtained the gold medal given at each commencement of the faculty of Maryland to the graduate who produces the best Latin thesis. The diplomatic career has received many others; three young men of the five employed as secretaries during the negotiations at Ghent, were pupils of St. Mary's; two others have also followed Mr. Pinkney in his legation. Seven of its graduates, within this year, have travelled to the universities of France and England, a circumstance which at least seems to evince that zeal for information with which they have been inspired, during their exercises at St. Mary's, and which it is so interesting for this country to see extensively promoted. Many of these estimable pupils belong to families so highly respected in these states that their name is, by itself, a kind of strong presumption in favour of the institution to which their education was intrusted.

3. Of that curious 'military despotism' of the gentlemen of St. Mary's we

leave their pupils, now dispersed in every part of the union, to bear the proper witness, or the readers, if they are the best informed, of the mild regulations and kindly temper of the institution, to judge for themselves. Few institutions, we believe, can receive more marks of esteem and affection from their pupils, than have been bestowed on their *alma mater* by those of St. Mary's—nor have the reverend M. Dubourg and his successors MM. Paquet and Mareschal so far behaved as 'military despots' as not to obtain an uncommon share in the love of their youthful friends—the present head of the college will probably, after them continue, in its management, to steer between any excess of that discipline considered by the institution as so important to the welfare of the students, and any improper relaxation of it that might impair its usefulness.

4. That the reverend M. Dubourg, now the Catholic bishop of New Orleans, is *not now* the president of St. Mary's, is sufficiently implied in the preceding remark; as for the name of the actual president of the other college, the author of the article betrays the same carelessness or want of exact information. The paragraph has been written *ex professo* to give 'the present state of the American colleges, these errors, particularly for institutions so near the place where it is published, are more remarkable. We take no notice of those which concern the other colleges mentioned in the 'brief account.'

5. The respectable patronage alluded to, belongs solely to the college of Georgetown, in the District of Colum-

bia, chartered by Congress, and more considerable in many respects than some of those reviewed in the account, yet entirely omitted. Of the liberal contributions in like manner alluded to, scarcely any proof, we think, could be furnished—St. Mary's college may simply rely on the public esteem as long as it will deserve it. Rivalships, it entertains none; no institution was ever more free from intrigues or any petty arts of that kind—more exact to confine itself within the proper bounds of self-defence.

6. As for 'the religious jealousy' with which it is said to be regarded by a portion of the community, the gentlemen of St. Mary's may trust the liberality of the times for its limited effect besides the reproach would but be *theirs*, for we do not see why a literary institution would not have in Baltimore, its proper degree of respectability and usefulness, in the bounds of *catholic* clergymen as well as it has it in those of *Arian* clergymen in Harvard, or *Calvinistical* clergymen in Yale, as the brief account will have them to be in these most ancient and celebrated universities.

We abstain from further remarks—whether the errors of the paragraph concerning St. Mary's College were originally *misstatements* or *mistakes* is indifferent, and we ought not to suppose the former in preference, since any ill will to that institution could not have gratuitously influenced the impartial and uninjured editors; to offer the proper corrections was the only object of,

Gentlemen,
yours, &c.

ERRATA.

In our last No.

- Page 441, line, 5, after Trigonometry, insert Mensuration,
 — 16, for *it*, read, *is*.
 446, 20, for *principles*, read, *principle*.
 448, 8, for *now*, read, *never*.
 451, 7, from bottom, for *respect*, read, *respects*.
 453, 8, for *then*, read, *these*.
 460, 13, for *divisions*, read, *divisors*.

In our present No.

- P. 20, line 5, for *resemblance*, read, *semblance*.
 — 4, from bottom, for *set*, read *sets*.
 22, 22, from bottom, for *by being*, read, *may be*.

THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1817.

ART. I.—*Memoirs of the Life and Writings of the late JOHN COAKLEY LETTSOM, M. D. LL. D. F. R. S. F. A. S. F. L. S. &c. &c. &c. with a selection from his correspondence.*—By Thomas Joseph Pettigrew, F. L. S. Member of, &c. &c. &c. 3 volumes, 8vo. London.

WE should hardly have deemed this publication worth the pages we have dedicated to it, but from the circumstance of its comprising epistolary correspondence between Dr. Lettsom and many persons of eminence of our own country, both dead and living. To American readers therefore, this collection will be an object of curiosity at least, even if it were worth perusing on no other account. Indeed if it contained nothing better to recommend it than the Biography of Dr. Lettsom by his friend Mr. Pettigrew, and the letters of Dr. Lettsom himself, we might safely consign it to the dust of the shelf, a portion of the literary lumber that adds merely to the *inutile pondus*.

When an author, even in this book-making age, sits down to write the memoirs of the life and writings of his deceased friend, and to present the world with a selection from his correspondence, it is reasonable to expect,

1. That the life of the person in question should be interesting from the great eminence of the deceased—from the remarkable character of the events of his life—or instructive, from the moral lessons and conclusions which it affords.

2. The selection from his correspondence should be interesting, either from the novelty of fact, the ingenuity of remark, the literary merit of the letters selected, or the high character and station of the writers, which renders it a matter of public curiosity to know somewhat of their manners and sentiments.

3. Moreover, in selecting the correspondence, much delicacy should be employed in publishing letters which the writers meant only for the *private* perusal of the deceased to whom they were addressed. Indeed, it behoves every man to be upon his guard in writing letters to those who are accustomed to preserve their episto-

lary correspondence. To such a person, prudence requires that we should write only what we would write to the public: for although we might venture to unbosom ourselves to a friend, whose character we know and esteem, some book-making executor, may compel us to unbosom ourselves to all the world, and make the public at large our confidants, without our knowledge or consent.

Hence it becomes the duty of a man of eminence, to destroy such letters of his friends as do not require preservation from the permanent importance of their contents; for although the communication may be preserved as the writer intended it should be, in the private escutcheon of the friend to whom it was directed, yet a legal representative may seize upon it as lawful prey, and expose it for his own purposes to all the world, provided in so doing he keeps within the tether marked out by the law.

It would be difficult to assign any one reasonable motive for writing the life and memoirs of Dr. Lettsom, a man in our time generally regarded rather as a licensed quack, than a regular physician—ignorant of the common attainments of the well educated medical men who were his cotemporaries—notorious for his vanity, for his perpetual attempts to puff himself into public notice, for his bustling, ostentatious philanthropy, and his popularity and prosperity as a medical practitioner, in consequence of being considered by a particular sect, as the successor of Dr. Fothergill. Of his medical opinions and discoveries, we know none that have survived him; of his writings it would be difficult to point out one that has earned the approbation of the literary world.

He was a zealous and active promoter of many liberal and charitable schemes; instigated partly by a desire of being useful, and mainly by a wish that the world should notice him as being so. But though a zealous and an active, he was not an efficient promoter of any of these schemes; for his efforts were not seconded by any weight of personal character. Among those who knew him personally, he was not respected: indeed we incur no risk saying, that his general character was that of a man singularly desirous of popularity, but ignorant, vain, and ostentatious.

This may be deemed by some an ill-natured, harsh account of a character made up, like many others, of some faults and more virtues; but it will not be deemed so by those who take the trouble of reading, as we have done, the *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Dr. Lettsom*, and the *Selection from his Correspondence* by his present biographer, Mr. Pettigrew: for even Dr. Lettsom seems destined to be served up after death by some "damn'd good natured friend," as Sir Fretful Plagiary expresses it, who, like Bozzi and Piozzi kindly exposes all the failings of his life, to the animadversion of future times.

By the assistance of many trifling anecdotes of many trifling characters, the *Life and Memoirs* occupy about two hundred pages of the first volume.

Thus in page 5 we are told that John Coakley Lettsom was born in the island of Tortola on the 22d of November, 1744. From

thence to page 11, is principally occupied by an account of the school in which he was educated till the age of fourteen:—not for the purpose of marking his improvement there, or of noticing any plan of discipline or instruction worthy to be imitated or avoided; but to give an account of the amusements of the children; to wit, that there was a brook near the school where they fished—that they made several little pools by damming up the water, to preserve their fish in—that bird's-nesting, nutting, sliding, and other country sports, were their common recreations—that each boy had some kind of singing bird, which occasioned a medley of noises sufficient to stun the ears of a person unaccustomed to such music:—then follows an episode of two linnets that were very fond of each other:—then the sports of the boys are resumed, and we are informed that they used to jump over hedges and ditches after the hunters, by the assistance of long poles—that in summer they were encouraged to bathe and swim, and to shoot with bows and arrows:—at length, in page 11, Lettsom is taken away from school, on the death of his father.

'Lettsom was so early sensible of the want of a good memory, that at this time (being in his 18th year) he availed himself of notes, and constructed tables, to assist it; and by often reverting to them, the impressions that he wished more particularly to retain, were rendered so strong as rarely to elude recollection. Thus, with moderate powers of mind, he was enabled to supply by industry and art, what nature had denied him. By the construction of tables, he surmounted many difficulties which occurred in the course of his attention to anatomy, and was thus prepared the better to understand what he had collected by reading.'

It is a pity we have no specimen of, or any further information concerning these tables or their construction. The contrivances of literary men to abridge labour, and facilitate the means of acquiring knowledge, are of great importance to the literary world, when those means prove successful; and if Mr. Pettigrew had bestowed half the time on this subject that he has done on the common sports of Lettsom's school boy companions, he would have done his friend, his book, and himself more credit, and his readers more service.

In pages 18 and 19, notice is taken of some women whom Dr. Lettsom was acquainted with in early life; Mary Morris, Deborah Barnet, and Mary Fothergill; the two latter, female preachers in the society of friends. Of the former Mr. Pettigrew gives the following account:

'Thus his time glided smoothly away. His chief acquaintances were the Birckbecks, who, from a state of comparative indigence, rose to great opulence; but who never abused or disgraced their riches by pride, extravagance, or want of charity. With Miss Mary Morris, who afterwards married Dr. Knowles, and settled in London, he enjoyed an intimate friendship; and they occasionally interchanged pieces of poetry, in the construction of which she was much the superior. She excelled also in epistolary correspondence; and in her conversation there was a sprightliness and poignancy which riveted and gratified the attention of every hearer. Miss Morris was once introduced to the king, and was rewarded by his majesty, for her great ingenuity in needle-work. She executed an excellent likeness of the monarch in worsted, which is now in one

of the royal palaces. She was very careless in her dress, sometimes to an unpleasant degree.'

Mr. Pettigrew, we presume, supposes that a piece of poetry can be constructed on the same mechanical principles with a piece of machinery. Indeed neither Dr. Lettsom or Mary Morris were ever guilty of constructing *poetry*: the former was a very bad, the latter a very tolerable rhymers. With Mary Morris, better known by the name of Molly Knowles, the writer of this article was for many years acquainted, on the introduction of their mutual friend, John Henderson, of Hengham, near Bristol, afterwards of Pembroke College, Oxford, who died at the age of about twenty-six, with more literary attainments than almost any man of the same age in his time. Molly Knowles had a cultivated understanding, that rendered her worthy of being acquainted with such a man as Henderson; and was indeed superior to Dr. Lettsom, not only in the construction of poetry, but in every quality of mind and application of talent. At the death of her husband, Dr. Knowles of Lombard-street, she was reduced to poverty, but maintained herself chiefly by her exquisite skill in needle-work, and was the esteemed companion of most of the literati of her day. Her argument with Dr. Johnson on the comparative scale of female capacity, has been published, and is well known. Of what use is it to the world to detail of such a woman that her dress was neglected? The writer of this article had opportunities enough for remark, but never observed her dress unpleasantly neglected, or ever heard of it being so; and he was at least as well acquainted with Molly Knowles and her friends, as Mr. Pettigrew. But was there nothing to be told of such a woman save this trifling anecdote of scandal?

It is in this way that men of the world become disgusted at promiscuous introductions, and repulsive towards strangers; who visit too often, like the spies of a strange country, merely to espy the nakedness of the land. It is in this way that the trifler Brydone has done infinite harm in Italy to his countrymen, by retailing the confidential manners and communications of the persons to whom he was introduced; and in America, no one who has read the shameful tittle tattle and silly scandal of Chastelleux and Liancourt, but must receive with prudent coldness the introduction of any traveller from the same nation. Such men are nuisances in society: they repress the freedom of communication, they prevent the openheartedness of reception, and change the kindness of hospitality into the caution of mere civility. When Mr. Pettigrew visited Mrs. Knowles, or collected anecdotes of this extraordinary woman, the extent of his observation could reach no further than the negligence of her dress! Such a man is truly worthy of being Lettsom's biographer. His remarks on Dr. Akenside, are conceived in the same spirit.

In the year 1768 Dr. Lettsom returned to Tortola, and there liberated all the slaves on his part of the estate, to the number of about fifty:—an action that spoke unequivocally in favour of the goodness of his heart, but not of his prudence. His remarks on the neces-

sity of *gradual emancipation* in the next page, are the result of good sense and mature reflection.

The value of Dr. Lettsom's medical knowledge, at the age of twenty-eight, may be judged of from the following account of his proposed method of treating fevers, "such as often prove fatal within the tropics, and in warm climates and seasons generally."

'I. To take off the fever by removing the spasm; and,

'II. To strengthen the system against the recurrence of the fever.

'To answer these indications, he recommended the promotion of perspiration by the application of heat, by means of the warm bath, heated bricks, &c. Internally a combination of emetic tartar, with opium, to produce nausea or vomiting. If symptoms of inflammation be present, bleeding will be necessary. Upon a remission being obtained, he proposed to exhibit the Peruvian bark to prevent a recurrence of the disease.

'This sketch will serve to show the degree of attention and interest with which he viewed his professional pursuits, and his anxious desire to loosen the trammels which habit and custom had too long and injuriously fixed.'

Such is the extent of Mr. Pettigrew's medical knowledge in 1817, after he (like Dr. Lettsom) has thrown off the trammels of habit and custom.

In the title page of this compilation, we have a list of the titles of Mr. Pettigrew the editor: in page 99 of the *Life* we have the following list of titles of Dr. Lettsom himself:

'In this year (1783) Dr. Lettsom appears to have been fully engaged in his profession. Each succeeding year, for a considerable time, seemed to increase the reputation he had deservedly obtained. In this and following years he was chosen a member of various institutions. In 1786 he was elected an honorary member of the Colchester Medical Society. In 1788 an honorary member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, and a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. In 1789 he was chosen an honorary member of the Medical Societies of New-York, and of Newhaven; of the Agricultural Society of Amsterdam; and of the Bath Agricultural Society, of which he was one of the earliest members. In 1790 he was made a member of the Academy of Arts and Sciences of Montpellier, and an honorary member of the Medical Society there. He was also elected a member of the University of Cambridge, Massachusetts, and was made a doctor of laws of that University. In 1791 he was chosen an honorary member of the Royal Physical Society of Edinburgh; a fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh; an honorary member of the Massachusetts Humane Society; and a corresponding member of the Medical Society of Bristol. In 1792 he was chosen an honorary member of the Medical Society, Massachusetts; a member of the Pennsylvania Society for promoting the Abolition of Slavery, the Relief of Free Negroes unlawfully held in bondage, and for improving the Condition of the African race; a member of the Massachusetts Historical Society; and a corresponding member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Montpellier; for which honour he was indebted to the kindness of his friend M. Broussonet. In 1793 he was chosen an honorary member of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Newcastle; and of the Massachusetts Agricultural Society.

'The accession of so many honours in so short a space of time, is the best possible evidence of the almost universal opinion entertained respecting the literary, philosophical, and benevolent character and talents of Dr. Lettson. Among them we observe several from America, a part of the world in which he was most highly respected; for the friends of science and humanity, however scattered, or diversified by religion and country, are the citizens of the same republic.'

This appearance of Dr. Lettson, with 'blushing honours thick upon him' affords at best but an equivocal testimony of the universal opinion entertained of Dr. Lettson's literary, philosophical, and benevolent character and talents. A few well-timed presents and compliments, and a correspondent in each of these societies to propose him, was fully sufficient. Societies of this kind dispense their honorary memberships with very little consideration, and the expectation of a correspondent for their volume, is generally a sufficient inducement. A business managed with so much ease and certainty, would not be neglected by Dr. Lettson, who was anxious after this kind of titular popularity. Indeed, he forced his son into situations to attract popular notice, at an age, and in a manner, that can only be explained by his own anxiety after it. This appears by the following paragraph in one of his letters respecting his eldest child, John Miers Lettson, (*See page 45, and the Letter to Dr. Cuming, dated May 31, 1783.—Letters, page 41.*) Speaking of his son, Dr. Lettson says, 'I have made him a governor of many charities, whose meetings he attends, and votes like an experienced member.' This son was at that time about *ten* years of age! But a governor's subscription was sufficient to give him the title, and the sum was of little importance compared to the object. To teach a child the love of charity—to initiate him early into the pleasure of doing good—and give him opportunities of feeling the luxury of a kind action, purchased at the expense of self denial—is a part of education that a good and sensible parent will take frequent opportunities of inculcating by precept and by practice. But this is not to be done by the parent's subscribing sums of which the child knows not the value—by expending fifty guineas here, and fifty guineas there for the ostentatious pleasure of making a child of ten years of age a governor of half a dozen charities, and forcing him prematurely into the company of grave and elderly people, by *buying* the right of intruding him among them! This was manifestly making the charitable institutions in question, a stepping stone to family popularity, with a view to family prosperity. Real charity is never ostentatious; its motive is single, to do good: it is best rewarded when it has made a sacrifice of its own feelings or convenience, to effect the kind relief it wishes to afford. Benevolence does not consist in carelessly throwing away a small portion of superfluous wealth; still less in purchasing titles and honours under the guise of charitable donation.

On the first of November 1815, Dr. Lettson died. His biographer allows, to a certain degree, the charges of vanity so generally ascribed as a prominent feature of the doctor's character; and also that his attentions to the female part of his acquaintance, were the

result of an enthusiastic attachment to the fair sex, which led him into an unguardedness of behaviour, which subjected him to severe censure. It is a pity Mrs. Lettsom did not share more of this enthusiastic attachment, which indeed comported very ill with the character of a grave quaker, the father of a large family, who complains so much of the very little time he has to spare for the ordinary duties of life. For instance:

Dr. Lettsom to Dr. Cuming, October 16, 1782: 'I assure thee, since I arrived at the age of twenty-three, I have been in perpetual exertion in my profession. At that early period of life, I seldom prescribed for fewer than fifty, and often twice as many, *before breakfast.*'

In 1782 he received in fees three thousand six hundred pounds sterling; in 1784, three thousand nine hundred pounds; in 1785, four thousand and fifteen pounds; in 1786, four thousand five hundred pounds. From this time to 1800, he received annually from five to twelve thousand pounds. No wonder his very sensible correspondent, Dr. Cuming, in a letter, dated February 8, 1783, observes—

'When I hear of you, and others of the *primates* of the profession in London, visiting your fifty or a hundred patients in a day, I am thankful that I am not one of the number. Is it possible that, with all your learning, sagacity, and acuteness, you can, on such a superficial view and inquiry, be thoroughly instructed in all the circumstances of your patients' case and constitution? have you never occasion to lament (to use the words of our liturgy), *that you have left undone those things which you ought to have done, or that you have done those things which you ought not to have done?*'

Dr. Lettsom to Dr. Cuming, October 12, 1782: 'Sometimes, for the space of a week, I cannot command twenty minutes' leisure in my own house.'

From a letter of Dr. Cuming's, dated March 18, 1783, it should seem that Dr. Lettsom was not only in the habit of sitting up till two or three in the morning, but recommended it as a very refreshing practice; 'as a restorative for the fatigues of the past day.'

Dr. Cuming very properly advises him to relinquish his nocturnal lucubrations and convivialities, and to go to bed with his wife and family at eleven o'clock.

Dr. Lettsom to Dr. Johnstone, February 22, 1800: 'As the chief of my writing is managed in my carriage, allow me,' &c.

Dr. Lettsom to Dr. Walker, September 3, 1755: 'As I live in carriages, having seldom less than three pair of horses a day, and neglecting my meals, excepting *once a week*, when I dine with my wife:—a rarity of intercourse, which elsewhere he defends, as very proper, to prevent a languor of affection between the lady and her husband. And yet this man of incessant occupation could find time to trifle away with the fair sex, and lay himself open to the world's reproach, for his too assiduous attentions to other women than his wife. All which, his friend, his admirer, his biographer, has taken care to register, for the honour of Dr. Lettsom and the

amusement of the public! 'God protect us from our friends (says the Spanish proverb); we are always on guard against our enemies!'

That Dr. Lettsom was a kind-hearted, liberal-minded man, is obvious from the whole tenor of his life, and sufficiently appears from his letters now published; but that he was affected, vain, trifling, ostentatious, and ignorant, is equally manifest.

What man, of real benevolence, would pen such an overstrained, Godwinian, incredible sentiment as the following?

'I have often calculated that, if all the money in the English European dominions were equally divided, each person would possess about forty-five shillings. All I possess above this sum is so much more than I deserve; for what right have I to keep more than my share? For so much, therefore, I am an accountable steward, as I conceive it to be superabundantly given to me, to disperse, and to make those happier who have not got forty-five shillings in the whole.' Or would boast of having given away six hundred pounds in charity in a few months?

The reader of this compilation will be compelled to admit the great inferiority of Lettsom to his correspondents—the trifling character of his letters—the vanity and egotism that pervades them—and the silly affectation of overstrained sentiments and novel phrases that abounds in them. What man of good taste, in speaking (egotistically, as usual), would complain of his executorships and *troublesomeships* (Letters, p. 22.), and, descanting on his own fine feelings, would dilate on 'the sensibilities and *exquisibilities* of doing good?' (Letters, p. 23.) What physician can respect the medical judgment of a man, who, 'throwing off the trammels of habit and custom,' as his friend Mr. Pettigrew observes, advises to keep a patient warm, who labours under an inflammatory fever, in the warm season of a tropical climate? Relying on the warm bath, heated bricks, and the trifling excitements of nauseating diaphoretics? See Life, pp. 33, 34. Who for a long time considered mercury as a specific for the small pox, and who declares his opinion that no case of decided croup was ever cured without bleeding? Doubtless bleeding is a very useful part of the *methodus medendi*; but the writer of this article has had fourteen or fifteen cases of croup, impossible to be mistaken, in his own family, all of which were cured by emetics alone, repeated when the symptoms recurred. Dr. Lettsom's treatise on tea is substantially copied from Dr. Short's.

Mr. Pettigrew talks in raptures of the taste displayed at Dr. Lettsom's country-seat, Grove Hill. It was a pleasant place, in despite of the gross want of taste displayed in it. Does Mr. Pettigrew remember that it was divided from a kind of public promenade, frequented on Sundays by the common people in the neighbourhood of Camberwell; and that to permit them the sight of the beauties of this Elysium, the hedge was clipped low, that the company on the outside might have a view of the beauties within? Does Mr. Pettigrew remember the *square* pond, with side-walls of brick, and a rough kind of rock, to imitate nature, in the middle of this

brick pond, and a river-god, or some such animal, seated on the rock, and pouring out water? an ornament, of which the fountain and pond in the Centre-square of Philadelphia is an exact imitation, as to its size, and as to the rock, and differs chiefly in this, that in the Centre-square the pond is round, and has no brick walls within side, to show that, if the rock be an humble imitation of nature, the brick walls were the production of art. Does Mr. Pettigrew remember, at a little distance from this brick pond, a kind of open temple, covered, or seeming to be covered, with thatch, having a gilt ball on the top of it? We have no doubt but these were ornaments of the place devised by the strength of Dr. Lettson's own genius, and in perfect accord with Dr. Lettson's taste.

Such are the obvious remarks on Dr. Lettson's life and character, of which his friend Mr. Pettigrew has taken care to record the proofs. Of his writings we will say nothing: *De mortuis nil nisi bonum*.

The correspondence here collected does credit, if not to Dr. Lettson, at least to his friends. It is impossible not to be struck with the masculine good sense of Dr. Cuming's letters, especially when contrasted with the puerilities contained in the epistles of Dr. Lettson.

There are some passages and anecdotes in the correspondence which would amuse our readers; such as those relating to Faujas de St. Fond, Dr. Johnson, king George II, and bishop Warburton. The following extract shows the liberality and good sense of Dr. Cuming in a very favourable light.

'Our religious and political principles are accidental, and merely the effect of education. Had you and I been born of Turkish parents, and educated in the city of Constantinople, our confession of faith would have been, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet." Can it be supposed that heaven puts itself at the head of any one religious party? No! reason and charity compel us to believe, that the virtuous of all religions are equally acceptable to the Universal Father: for, little as we know of heaven, I hope we may, without any blasphemy, presume that the Supreme Being is at least as reasonable as the best of his creatures.'

In page 161 of the life, we find that the Thermometrical Scale of temperance and intemperance, usually attributed, and we believe properly, to Dr. Rush, is claimed for Dr. Lettson.

Dr. Lettson appears not to know that Dr. Franklin's Chapter on Toleration was borrowed. Bishop Taylor, in his *Liberty of Prophecy*, first published it in English. It is an Arabian tale, by Sadi, of which, in 1680, a translation in Latin was published, in a work entitled *Shebeth Jehudah, Tribus Judæ, de Hebræo in Latinum, versa a Georgio Gentio*. This was first shown by judge Cooper, in his review of Dr. Priestley's writings, vol. ii. p. 376.

In page 204 of vol. iii. the following curious relation is given by bishop Madison:

'In a town, this fall, among the mountains of our country, near to the place where I happened to be, a boy of twelve or thirteen years of age,

was bit, on the side of one of his feet, by a very venomous serpent, commonly called a copper-head. The poison of this animal is not less dreaded than that of the *crotalus horridus*, or rattlesnake. The boy was carried home, and soon discovered symptoms of great uneasiness. A swelling commenced; and the wound was slightly scarified. A bystander, acquainted, I suppose, with the practice of the Indians, recommended the following application: A chicken was caught, the feathers plucked from around the abdomen, and that part closely applied to the wound. The chicken instantly grew sick, and died as quickly as if its head had been cut off. A second was applied in a similar manner: it died in about four minutes. A third also experienced the same fate, in nearly eight minutes. A fourth was applied: it discovered some uneasiness, but did not die. The process was then discontinued. The boy was relieved, and suffered no greater inconvenience from the wound than he would have done from the puncture of a needle or pin. He was perfectly well on the second day. Having heard of what had passed, I was preparing to go to the house where the boy was, when his father, a very respectable man, a magistrate, and noted for his strict veracity, together with two other persons, upon whose information I entirely relied, from an intimate acquaintance with them, came to me. From them I heard the particulars related, as they were present, and witnessed the effects of this extraordinary *imbibition* of the poison. There remains not the shadow of doubt of the fact, as I have stated it. I saw the boy on the third day.

‘The copper-head resembles the mockason somewhat; but is larger. Some, indeed, consider it as the female rattlesnake; but I rather suppose it to be a distinct species. This snake is not mentioned by Catesby. Might not the same remedy be applied, in the case of a bite from a mad dog?’

The third volume is taken up with medical correspondence; but little information is to be found in it, that would be new in the present day.

The second volume contains several letters from Dr. Rush, Dr. Meade, the Rev. Mr. Madison, and Dr. Waterhouse. The letters written by the latter gentleman contain remarks on the politics of his neighbourhood and of the day, that were evidently penned under the sanction of private confidence. The opinions given are such as were manifestly calculated to do that gentleman serious injury with the prevailing party; nor would the letters have been written, if the writer could have contemplated the use that has been made of them. Dr. Waterhouse expresses no opinion that is not common to many wise and good men of the same political party with himself, and of course entertaining the same political views and prejudices. He supposes that a British party exists in the north-eastern section of the union, and in his vicinity. He is not singular in his opinion. But many wise and good men there are equally convinced that we have more reason to dread a French party in the United States than a British. Of all this every man must and will judge, according to the evidence presented to his reflection, but tinged, of course, by his previous political opinions. We blame neither party—we adopt neither opinion. But what right

had Mr. Pettigrew to publish these confidential letters? To put in jeopardy Dr. Waterhouse's official situation—to sow enmity between him and his acquaintance? between him and those on whose interest and countenance he might in some degree depend? Did not Mr. Pettigrew know, that, next to religious, political rancour and persecution is the most virulent? The letters were notoriously written in *private confidence*: what right had this book-maker to expose them to the public, for his private emolument.

But we have dwelt long enough on this publication, which derives no interest from the character of Dr. Lettsom, whose life is written—still less from the manner in which Mr. Pettigrew has made up these volumes; for if they have interest, no part of it is owing to the intrinsic value of his remarks, or the attractions of his style—nor in the professional correspondence of the third volume do we see any thing added to the stock of knowledge of the present day. We have noticed it from the local interest it derives, in consequence of its containing the letters of our own citizens, and to express our strong disapprobation of the principles on which the book has been made up by its compiler.

ART. II.—*Dissertation First: exhibiting a general view of the progress of Metaphysical, Ethical, and Political Philosophy, since the Revival of Letters in Europe.* By Dugald Stewart, Esq. F. R. SS. London and Edinburgh, &c. Boston: republished by Wells and Lilly. 1817. p. 260. 8vo.

MR. STEWART has long been a very popular writer on a very unpopular subject: for people too generally love not metaphysics, but they love the easy, elegant, and neat style of writing for which this author is celebrated. He has done much to disarm prejudice of her weapons of hostility against the philosophy of the human mind. His work now before us, is on a subject every way suited to his taste and his talents. It is a historical view of the writers on the subject to which he has devoted his life, and a critique on their productions. The most interesting part of the history of mental philosophy is yet to come, for the present dissertation extends to no period later than the commencement of the eighteenth century, which was memorable for its discoveries and improvements in this department of science. The Preface to this First Dissertation occupies nearly thirty pages; and we may say of it, what can be affirmed of few introductory addresses, that it is the best part of the book. It is a history of the most important attempts which have been made, to reduce all the objects of human knowledge to a systematic classification. He says,

‘When I ventured to undertake the task of contributing a Preliminary Dissertation to these Supplemental Volumes, of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, my original intention was, after the example of D’Alembert, to have begun with a general survey of the various departments of human knowledge. The outline of such a survey, sketched by the comprehensive genius of Bacon, together with the corrections and im-

provements suggested by his illustrious disciple, would, I thought, have rendered it comparatively easy to adapt their intellectual map to the present advanced state of the sciences; while the unrivalled authority which their united work has long maintained in the republic of letters, would, I flattered myself, have softened those criticisms which might be expected to be incurred by any similar attempt of a more modern hand. On a closer examination, however, of their labours, I found myself under the necessity of abandoning this design. Doubts immediately occurred to me with respect to the justness of their logical views, and soon terminated in a conviction, that these views are radically and essentially erroneous. Instead, therefore, of endeavouring to give additional currency to speculations which I conceived to be fundamentally unsound, I resolved to avail myself of the present opportunity to point out their most important defects;—defects which, I am nevertheless very ready to acknowledge, it is much more easy to remark than to supply. The critical strictures which, in the course of this discussion, I shall have occasion to offer on my predecessors, will, at the same time, account for my forbearing to substitute a new mass of my own, instead of that to which the names of Bacon and D'Alembert have lent so great and so well-merited a celebrity; and may perhaps suggest a doubt, whether the period be yet arrived for hazarding again, with any reasonable prospect of success, a repetition of their bold experiment. For the length to which these strictures are likely to extend, the only apology I have to offer is the peculiar importance of the questions to which they relate, and the high authority of the writers whose opinions I presume to controvert.

We must either give Mr. Stewart credit for more diffidence than becomes his station, or else must suppose, that he knows himself to be destitute of inventive powers. What does he *venture*, in contributing a preliminary dissertation to an Encyclopædia? Why should he refuse to contribute his exertions towards a formation of a correct chart of human knowledge? Would he not only *remark*, but *supply* defects, where there are defects enough already? Or does this elegant scholar intend, that he thinks himself incapable of *supplying the places* of those defects which he exposes, with something substantial? If our author deserves the celebrity which he enjoys, for any thing else than having entered into Dr. Reid's old house, and having newly painted the outside, that he may make a show of another's property, he ought not to have shrunk from the labour of contributing something to the systematic arrangement of the departments of knowledge. Stewart's writings deserve much praise, because he sets off, like an expert youth behind the counter, the goods which the father of mental philosophy collected in store for him. Something of invention, or new observation, we have always desired to find in our author; and have desired in vain: but, strange to tell! Stewart is found in some of our colleges, and Reid, his teacher, only in the libraries of a few learned men. It is easier to make a mighty noise about what Bacon has done, than to do something worth narrating one's self.

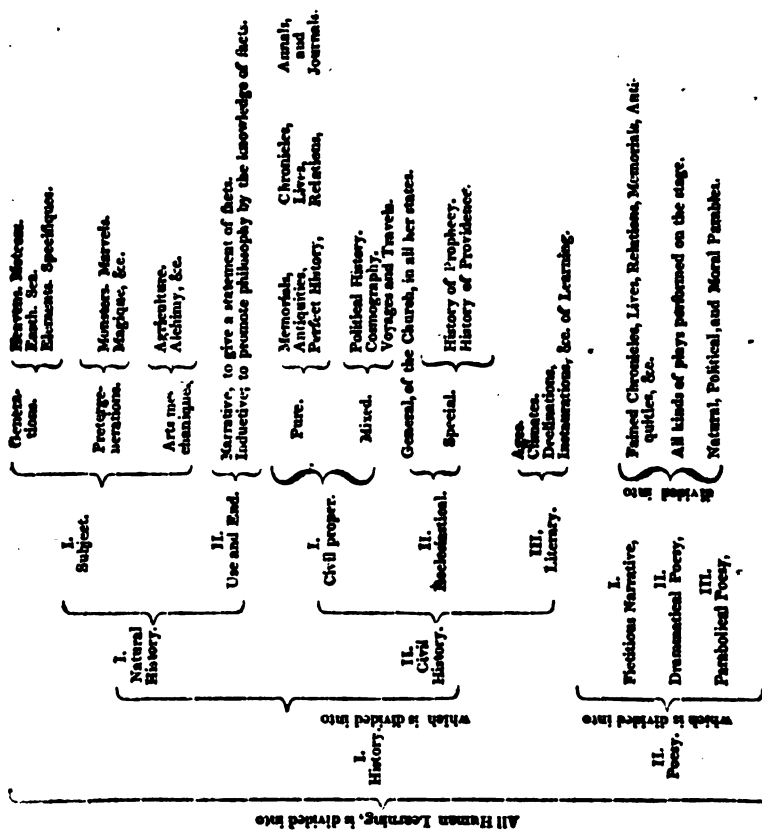
A correct classification of the sciences, professor Stewart deems a *desideratum*, and a *desperandum*. The principal divisions of know-

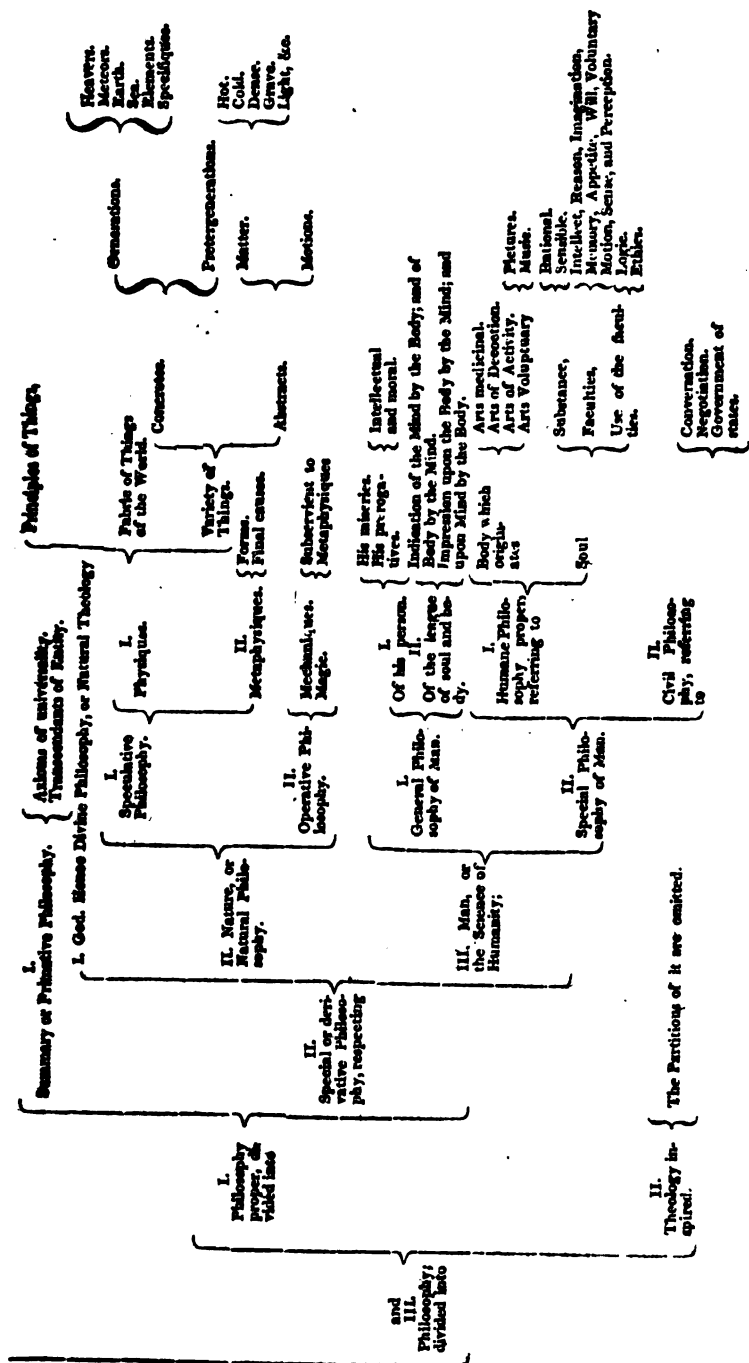
ledge, of which he gives us an account, are those of Bacon, D'Alembert, and Locke. That they are all defective he has clearly evinced. Bacon he justly represents as the first who attempted any thing of importance on this subject; and his classification has been the chart upon which all subsequent system-makers have wrought their experiments. D'Alembert followed the scheme of lord Verulam, and 'his veneration for Bacon seems, on this occasion, to have prevented him from giving due scope to his own powerful and fertile genius, and has engaged him in the fruitless task of attempting, by means of arbitrary definitions, to draw a veil over incurable defects and blemishes, p. 10.

It would have increased the interest which literary men will feel in the Dissertation, had Mr. Stewart given us D'Alembert's 'Encyclopædial Tree,' and Bacon's chart, of which he frequently speaks. That our readers may have an opportunity of judging of the classification of the latter, we shall extract from his 'Advancement of Learning' his general divisions of knowledge, and, so far as is compatible with our prescribed limits, his subordinate ramifications of the generic sciences.

What, then, accomplished the immortal reviver of science in Europe?—The human mind, he says, has *three faculties*, which are called Memory, Imagination, and Reason. 'That is the truest partition of human learning, which hath reference to the *three faculties* of man's soul, which is the seat of learning. *History* is referred to *memory*, *poesy* to the *imagination*, philosophy to *reason*. By *poesy*, in this place, we understand nothing else, but *feigned history*, or fables. As for *verse*, that is only a stile of expression. And that this *distribution* is truly made, he shall easily conceive that hath recourse to the originals of intellectuals. Individuals only strike the sense, which is the port or entrance of the understanding. The images or impressions of those individuals accepted from the *sense*, are fixed in the *memory*, and at first enter into it entire, in the same manner they were met: afterwards the *understanding* ruminates upon them and refines them; which then it doth either merely *review*, or in a wanton delight, counterfeit and *resemble*; or by compounding and dividing, digest and endue them. So it is clearly manifest that from these three fountains of *memory*, of *imagination*, and of *reason*, there are these three emanations, of *poesy*, of *history*, and of *philosophy*, and that there can be no other nor no more: for *history* and *experience*, we take for one and the same, as we do *philosophy* and *science*.* His three generic sciences, it appears therefore, are history, poesy, and philosophy; and from these all the specific sciences are to be deduced, if they can be; or else the commencement of the classification is defective. Let us now place before our readers 'the emanation of sciences, from the intellectual faculties of memory, imagination, and reason.

* Adv. of Learn. b. 2. c. 1 Oxford Edition, 1640.





'Orations, epistles, and apophthegms,' lord Bacon informs us are 'appendices to history.' In like manner, he *Appends* 'mathematics,' *divided* into 'arithmetic and geometry,' to 'natural philosophy;' the doctrine of 'angels and spirits,' to 'natural theology;' and 'problems and 'placits,' or propositions' to 'physics;' because he could not mathematically arrange them in any place. From logic he derives *Elocution*, and from *Elocution* the sciences of 'Grammar, Method; and Rhetoric.' We have not time to pursue him through all his ramifications of logic, ethics, and the civil history of man; nor is it needful; for we have followed him to his disclosure of all the sciences.—Our readers have now before them, the famed classification of all human knowledge by Bacon; which Mr. Stewart says, has not been much improved by all the labours of Locke, D'Lembert, Diderot, the Germans, and the great lights of the eighteenth century. Of ever obtaining such a philosophical partition as he deems desirable, the professor seems to despair. So did not Bacon. He says, 'touching impossibility; I determine thus; 'all those things are to be held possible and performable, which 'may be accomplished by some person, though not by every one; 'and which may be done by the united labours of many, though 'not by any one apart; and which may be effected in a succession 'of ages, though not in the same age; and in brief, which may be 'finished by the public care and charge, though not by the ability 'and industry of particular persons.' *Adv. of Learn. B. II. Proem.* Bacon requests, moreover, in his Preface, p. 19. that men 'would 'cheer up themselves, and conceive well of the enterprise; and not 'figure unto themselves a conceit and fancy, that this *Our Institution is a matter infinite, and beyond the power and compass of 'Mortality;* seeing it is in truth the right and legitimate end and 'period of *Infinite Error.*' 'It seems to me,' he says, 'that men 'neither understand the Estate they possess, nor their abilities to 'purchase; but of the one to presume more, of the other less, than 'indeed they should. So it comes to pass, that over-prizing the 'Arts received, they make no further inquiry; or undervaluing 'themselves, more than in equity they ought, they expend their 'abilities upon matters of slight consequence, never once making 'experiment of those things which conduce to the sum of the business. Wherefore, *Sciences also have,* as it were their *Fatal Columns;* being men are not excited, either out of desire or hope, to 'penetrate further.' 'Persons who have entertained a design to 'make trial themselves, and to give some *advancement to sciences,* 'and to *propagate their bounds,* even these authors durst not 'make an open departure from the common received opinions; nor 'visit the Head-springs of nature, but take themselves to have done 'a great matter, and to have gained much upon the age, if they 'may but *interlace,* or *annex* any thing of their own; providently 'considering with themselves, that by these middle courses, they 'may both conserve the *modesty of assenting;* and the liberty of 'adding.'

Stewart's Dissertation, which is introductory to the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, deserves the greater part of the encomiums passed upon it in the Edinburgh Review for September 1816. 'This discourse is the most splendid of Mr. Stewart's works,' says that *critical journal*, 'and places the author at the head of the elegant writers on philosophy in our language,' p. 192. Splendid as it is, we cannot ascertain wherein it excels his other works, unless it be in this, that it is his *last*; which with some writers, as with some hearers of sermons, is a sufficient reason for pronouncing it the best. In his sketch of classifications, Stewart proceeds not beyond the essays of three literary luminaries; and is defective in not giving a candid narrative of several reputable enterprizes of this nature which might have been found in the annals of literature.

He represents Locke as attempting to distribute into classes, the whole of human knowledge, while the Edinburgh Reviewer is of a different opinion. Stewart seems, in his opinion, to suppose that the "plans of Bacon and Locke are for different distributions of the same subject. But they plainly relate to different matters. That of Bacon respected all the objects of those faculties of the human mind called intellectual, which in the philosophy of his age, were distinguished from the senses on the one hand, and from the will on the other. The object of Locke was more limited. His distribution is only 'of what falls under the compass of the understanding;' meaning, by that term, what Bacon denotes by 'Reason.' Mr. Locke, therefore, proposed only a subdivision of one of Bacon's classes, that namely of 'Philosophy;' and Dr. Smith uses the same language when speaking of a similar distribution adopted by the Greeks. It is plain, indeed, that an arrangement which includes history and the fine arts, cannot be intended to apply to the same subject with one which excludes them. That of Bacon, therefore, is a distribution of all the objects of mind;—that of Locke, only of what are strictly called sciences." In reply to this ingenious reviewer, and in defence of Stewart whom he modestly assails on this point, we quote Locke himself, who must have known what was his own design. 'A man can employ his thoughts about nothing, but either the contemplation of things themselves, for the discovery of truth; or about the things in his own power, which are his own actions, for the attainment of his own ends; or the signs the mind makes use of, both in the one and the other, and the right ordering of them for its clearer information. All which three, *viz.* things as they are in themselves knowable; actions as they depend on us, in order to happiness; and the right use of signs in order to knowledge, being *toto cælo* different, they seemed to me to be the three great provinces of the intellectual world, wholly separte and distinct one from another.* He means then to classify every thing about which man can employ his *thoughts*, or what he elsewhere calls the whole of *human knowledge*. The

* Essay on the Understanding. B. iv. ch. 21. sec. 5.

understanding Locke used sometimes to denote *one faculty*, but more frequently all the faculties by which we have knowledge, whether it be of history, of the fine arts, or of philosophy. History and the fine arts were so far from being excluded by him that he would have included the last under the general head of *actions*, or things done, and the first under the head of *signs*; for history consists in the signs of things performed. At any rate, we can *think* of history and the fine arts, and they might, therefore, with every other science and object of contemplation be arranged among his *things knowable*. This, by the way, exhibits something of the imperfection of Locke's 'Division of the Sciences,' while it proves against the critic of Scotland, that Bacon and Locke DID attempt 'different distributions of the same subject.'

We were gratified with the confession of this same critic, contained in the same review of Stewart's Introduction, p. 196. that 'the very defective nomenclature, and imperfect subdivision of the moral and political sciences is attended with practical inconveniences.' The same inconveniences in a great measure have been experienced, in relation to the sciences in general. We agree, too, 'that the very general divisions'—are 'much less useful subjects of consideration than the subdivisions. The number and exactness of these last, in the physical sciences, must be regarded both as an indication and as a cause of their great advances in modern times.' Ed. Review, p. 195. But how could there be any subdivisions, without some previous divisions? And why might not universal science gain as much from an accurate nomenclature and classification of its constituent parts, as any one particular branch of that universal science? Why would you, having written very well on the subject, proceed to contradict yourself, in a subsequent page (229), by assuring us, that 'Descartes made an attempt to give a new system of all the sciences; an attempt excusable only when lectures were the only means of instruction, and when one professor might have been obliged to conduct his pupil through the whole circle of education?' Why should you affirm it to be 'impracticable' to frame a systematic arrangement of the sciences? It is well, then, for one professor to have before him a plan of the whole instruction which he is to communicate, if he must teach all the sciences: but if those sciences are to be partitioned among different professors, the division should not be made, nor the parts allotted, from any comprehensive and systematic view of the whole! How, then, should the distribution be made to the professors? Shall each take what part he pleases; two occupy one department; and all leave some portions wholly neglected? What renders it *impracticable* to reduce to system and natural order all the parts of human knowledge? By a system of universal science, no one intends all which man may in future ages know, or which the Supreme Being now comprehends; but simply all the knowledge which the children of men now have, which may be written down, and arranged in some order, so as to be presented to our companions and posterity.

To reduce what man now knows to a natural system is not impracticable. This Bacon has proved by his partial success: this Woodward has proved; and if we have not improved upon Woodward's system, which is generally admitted by those who have examined our pages, we nevertheless quote as our maxim,

'Possunt, quia posse videntur.'

Should our plan be acted upon, in the erection of professorships in our colleges, and the different parts of human learning be divided according to the number of teachers employed, the general complaint of interference and disorder in the work of instruction would cease; and each person, as in the suitable distribution of mechanical employments, would improve his own art, and become more thoroughly master of his own department of science.

It would assist even our fraternity, called the *reviewers*, for when we have a list of new publications to give, we frame a system of science for the occasion; but it is an alphabetical one; and so we have for No. LIII, of the Edinburgh Review, 'Agriculture, Antiquity, Biography, Botany, Classics, Chymistry, Drama, Fine Arts, Education, History, Geography,* Horticulture, Law, Medicine, Surgery,† Anatomy,† *Miscellaneous*, Natural History, Natural Philosophy, Novels, Romances,† Poetry, Politics, Political Economy, Philology, Topography, Theology, Veterinary Art, Voyages, and Travels.†

To those readers who are governed by authority, rather than by their own judgment, we would adduce the opinion of our author, who, having stated some of the defects of Bacon's system, asks, 'Are we, therefore, to conclude, that the magnificent design, conceived by Bacon, of enumerating, defining, and classifying the multifarious objects of human knowledge (a design, on the successful accomplishment of which he himself believed that the advancement of the sciences essentially depended)? Are we to conclude, that this design was nothing more than the abortive offspring of a warm imagination, unsusceptible of any useful application to enlighten the mind, or to accelerate its progress? My own idea is widely different. The design was, in every respect, worthy of the sublime genius by which it was formed. Nor does it follow, because the execution was imperfect, that the attempt has been attended with no advantage.' *Dissert.* p. 19.

The Edinburgh Reviewer asserts, and in this we agree with him, that Mr. Stewart has in fact attempted a classification, even after modestly saying that he was unequal to the work. He did it, because he could not fix upon the number and the order of his dissertations and chapters, without doing it. 'The plan of Mr. Stewart (which he does not offer indeed as any general classification), is to class together all the sciences which regard mind, and to form a

* Here the editor committed an alphabetical anachronism, in his very natural and scientific partition!

† Here he wisely prefers the order of natural affinity to that of the alphabet.

distinct class of those which relate to matter. This, however, evidently blends physical with moral inquiries.' If he did not offer this as a general classification, he nevertheless acted upon it, as if he thought it an arrangement of all the objects of knowledge. 'There are at least three principles' (says the same review, p. 194), 'on which such an arrangement may be attempted; by attending chiefly—either, 1. to the *faculty* to which each object of the human mind most eminently relates, which is that chosen by Bacon, but not confined by him to science; or, 2. to the manner in which human reason considers each of its objects, which is that chosen by Mr. Locke, but limited to science; or, 3. to the connexion subsisting between the *things known themselves*, which is that chosen for the purpose of this (Stewart's) discourse, and, like that of Mr. Locke, confined to science.' Ed. Review, p. 194, for Sept. 1816. A better method than either of these, is one, in which respect is had sometimes to the *faculties* of the mind, sometimes to our manner of understanding them, and sometimes to the *objects* of knowledge; nor can any good classification be made without a due regard to each method pointed out in the review.

The *preface* to the Dissertation might have been entitled, 'A history of different classifications of science.' The subsequent parts of the book are employed in giving the author's philosophical strictures upon Luther, Calvin, Bacon, Machiævel, Malebranche, Descartes, Locke, D'Alembert, and a few other distinguished writers:—and is rather a *volume of criticism*, than a *history* of the progress of metaphysical, ethical, and political science.

We shall expect the subsequent dissertations, which are promised, with pleasure; we shall expect to find in them *the history* of the progress of the human mind; and in the mean time we wish our readers to know, that Stewart has very little originality, has made very few new discoveries in the philosophy of the human mind; is indebted to Dr. Reid, his predecessor, for a system which is generally sound; is more splendid, but less argumentative, than his preceptor; and very justly reverences the talents of his metaphysical father so much as to think it a distinguished honour to be able to improve upon him, or to detect him in an error. Reid subdued the rugged country, banished most of the tares, sowed good seed, and Stewart has entered into another man's labours, to enjoy an abundant harvest. It is not the lot, however, of every great man to be a Newton in physics, or a Reid in metaphysics. Stewart ought to be read, and will be read, by every genuine son of science.

ART. III.—*Memoirs of the Life of Anthony Benezet*: By Roberts Vaux. Philadelphia: published by James P. Parke. 1817. p. 136, 12mo.

FEW schoolmasters have ever been honoured by the publication of a biographical volume for the preservation of their memory. Yet schoolmasters are some of the most useful of mankind; and

were they estimated according to their real importance, would certainly occupy a place in society more exalted than they now do.

Anthony Benezet was a schoolmaster, respected, beloved, and useful, for the greater part of half a century. This is more to his reputation than his having descended from a French family of Huguenots, which of itself is a high recommendation to all protestants. But he was more than a teacher of children: he was a respectable author, and a correspondent with crowned heads. Some might call his conduct in writing to distinguished foreigners, 'to Charlotte, queen of Great Britain,' and Frederic of Prussia, presumption; but he was an independent, and as he himself said, little *ugly* man, that deemed every human being nothing more, and nothing less, than his brother or sister; therefore, he wrote with freedom, when he thought it might subserve the interests of humanity; compelled attention, and uniformly secured respect. Besides a few school-books, the subjects which employed his pen were, '*An account of that part of Africa inhabited by the Negroes*;'—'*A Caution and Warning to Great Britain and her Colonies, on the Calamitous State of the Enslaved Negroes*;'—'*An Historical Account of Guinea, &c. with an Inquiry into the Rise and Progress of the Slave Trade*;'—'*Thoughts on the Nature of War*;'—'*Serious Reflections on the Times*;'—'*A Short Account of the Religious Society of Friends*;'—and '*The Plainness and Innocent Simplicity of the Christian Religion*.'

One of his correspondents, Governor Livingston, of New-Jersey, wrote him that 'the piece on slave keeping is excellent, but the arguments against the lawfulness of war have been answered a thousand times.' p. 42. The father of Benezet was something more of a fighting man than his son, for when Anthony was an infant, persecution on account of religious opinions, made the former judge it necessary to withdraw from his native country.

'To accomplish this purpose, he secured the services of a young man, upon whose attachment he could rely, to accompany him beyond one of the military outposts, which then skirted the frontier of France. Nothing occurred to interrupt their progress, until they approached the sentinel; when their adventurous friend presenting himself before him, displaying in one hand an instrument of death, and tendering with the other a purse of money, said "*take your choice, this is a worthy family, flying from persecution, and they shall pass*:" the guard accepted the gold, and their escape was safely accomplished.'

Mr. Vaux remarks upon this transaction, that 'so great an exigency probably reconciled to the mind of this suffering individual, the method he adopted to effect it, though it offered the bold alternative, which was to sacrifice either the life or the fidelity of the servant of the crown.' p. 3. Now our opinion is, that no man is bound to be faithful to a monarch in his work of persecution, but should renounce his allegiance; and the soldier took the money for permitting that which he ought to have permitted without price. Had not the soldier permitted them to pass, even without any pecuniary consideration, he would have joined the king in unlawfully aiming a blow at a guiltless life, and the Huguenot would have been

justifiable in defending his own life at the expense of that of the assailant.

The public however, should not forget that Mr. Vaux is a very respectable and conscientious quaker: and we hope he may never have his life invaded, lest he should put off, to his subsequent regret, his dun coloured coat, in the hour of temptation.

The peculiar characteristic of Anthony Benezet was readiness and perseverance in benevolent exertions. This was displayed in his taking off his coat in the street and giving it to an almost naked mendicant, so that he went home 'in his shirt sleeves for another garment;' p. 128; but much more unequivocally in his gratuitously teaching people of colour; in his donations to the needy; in the devotion of much time to benevolent institutions; and particularly, in being a father to the neutrals. Of these people we shall extract a long account, because it is interesting, and will present both Benezet and his biographer in a very just and favourable point of light.

'In the midst of these various and important avocations, a call was made upon his active benevolence from a quarter, and of a nature the most novel and unexpected. But ever prepared to dispense good, he obeyed the summons with promptitude and cheerfulness. It was a duty no less formidable than that of extending protection and care to a considerable part of a colony of people, whose condition was deplorably wretched, and wholly friendless. Previously to giving an account of his unremitted attentions to these unhappy exiles, it may be proper to furnish a brief notice of their history and character, and of the most extraordinary and unjustifiable measures which terminated in their banishment. These helpless strangers were a portion of the descendants of those French inhabitants of Nova Scotia, who after the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, by which the province was ceded to England, were permitted to hold their lands, on condition of making a declaration of allegiance to their new sovereign, which acknowledgment of fidelity was given under an express stipulation that they and their posterity should not be required to bear arms, either against their Indian neighbours or transatlantic countrymen. This contract was at several subsequent periods revived, and renewed to their children; and such was the notoriety of the compact, that for half a century they bore the name, and with some few exceptions maintained the character of neutrals. They were a people remarkable for their piety and mildness of disposition; were frugal and industrious; strongly attached to the French monarch, and unalterably devoted to the Catholic religion.

'During the war of 1755, some of the young neutrals were detected in conveying intelligence to the Indian and French forces, then acting against the province. This defection greatly incensed the British commander, and produced a determination to punish the whole fraternity by the confiscation of their property, and the banishment of their persons to different places along the sea coast, from Massachusetts bay to South Carolina. When the period had arrived for carrying this cruel purpose into execution, an order was issued requiring the neutrals to assemble at the different ports, under the specious pretext of then having communicated to them some important, and valuable information. The un-

suspecting Acadians, utterly ignorant of the destiny that awaited them, were obedient to the requisition, and when collected at the time and places appointed, they were informed that their lands were forfeited to the crown, that they themselves were prisoners, and were to be immediately removed from the province. Vessels being in readiness to convey them away, they were ordered on board. A scene of distress and confusion ensued; the military who had been purposely kept concealed until now, made their appearance, and the embarkation was soon effected at the point of the bayonet, with the exception of between two and three hundred, who escaped and sought refuge in the neighbouring forests. Toward those who fled, all possible measures were adopted to coerce them back to captivity, the country was laid waste, to prevent their subsistence, and many of them were shot, and otherwise perished. This community at the time of this disastrous event, amounted to almost seven thousand persons, but the exact number who were banished, cannot be accurately ascertained; upwards of one thousand of them were sent to Massachusetts bay, and about five hundred to Philadelphia.

The melancholy story of their sufferings, would have awakened compassion in the most obdurate heart, and intensely acute must have been the feelings of Benezet, when introduced to the knowledge of their dreadful fate. He at once adopted them as his children, and proceeded to employ every exertion in his power to soften the rigour of their condition. As he was able to converse with them in their own language, it facilitated their necessary intercourse with the inhabitants, whilst it was a circumstance that could not but have mitigated their sorrows, since they had found in him, not only a friend who yielded them all the comfort and consolation he could bestow, but an interpreter, who was qualified and willing to hear, and make known the history of their afflictions. On their disembarkation, the neutrals were taken charge of by the conservators of the poor, and conveyed to a building which had been occupied as a lodging for soldiers. Many of them were labouring under disease, some were enfeebled by their crowded condition and the scanty fare of the passage, others were disconsolate in consequence of being separated from their nearest connexions, whilst all were dejected with the striking reverse of their former comforts and independence. Though the funds for their support were for a time supplied from the public purse, Anthony Benezet undertook to provide for their subsistence, in the purchase and distribution of every thing which they required. To the sick and dying, he administered relief, so long as human exertion was availing, or could hope for success, and when death terminated the sufferings of any of them, he would perform the last office of respect to their remains. The inconvenient construction of the barracks, as well as want of room in them, being ill suited to their accommodation, he solicited permission of his friend, the late pious Samuel Emlen, to occupy part of a square of ground owned by him in the south western section of Philadelphia, with buildings for the residence of the neutrals. The grant being promptly made, Benezet proceeded to collect subscriptions, and was soon enabled to purchase materials and erect a sufficient number of small houses, to which they were immediately removed. The supply from the public treasury ceasing on their change of situation, he was obliged to devise modes of employment for them to procure a livelihood; and among various occupations, to which he

directed their attention, was the manufacture of wooden shoes and linsy cloth; the material for the composition of the latter article, was principally obtained by their gathering rags from the streets of the city, which they washed, and otherwise prepared for the purpose. In addition to the personal services thus rendered, he paid out of his small income annuities to several of the most ancient and helpless. It is related of him among other proofs of his kindness toward them, that his wife, having made unsuccessful search for a pair of blankets which she had recently purchased for the use of the family, came into the room where her husband was writing, and expressing some surprise as to what had become of them, his attention was arrested, and when he understood the cause of her uneasiness, "Oh! (said he) my dear, I gave them some evenings since, to one of the poor neutrals." Thus, for several years he devoted himself to the advancement of the interests of those people, who by death, and removal to different places, were ultimately reduced to a very small number. Such was his assiduity and care of them, that it produced a jealousy in the mind of one of the oldest men among them, of a very novel and curious description; which was communicated to a friend of Benezet's, to whom he said, "it is impossible that all this kindness is disinterested; Mr. Benezet must certainly intend to recompense himself by treacherously selling us." When their patron and protector was informed of this ungrateful suspicion, it was so far from producing an emotion of anger, or an expression of indignation, that he lifted up his hands, and laughed immoderately.

On the subject of slavery Benezet thought, wrote, and felt much; but he was temperate, in comparison with many mad theorists, who, whether it be practically right or wrong, would emancipate all the coloured people of the southern states at once. In a letter to Dr. Fothergill, he writes,

'I am like-minded with thee, with respect to the danger and difficulty which would attend a sudden manumission of those negroes now in the southern colonies, as well to themselves as to the whites; wherefore, except in particular cases, the obtaining their freedom, and indeed the freedom of many even amongst us, is by no means the present object of my concern. But the best endeavours in our power to draw the notice of governments upon the grievous iniquity and great danger attendant on a further prosecution of the slave-trade, is what every truly sympathizing mind cannot but earnestly desire, and, under divine direction, promote to the utmost of their power.'

We must not omit to mention that Mr. Benezet became an elder, or preacher, in the friends' meeting, and was remarkable for settling disputes, (yes, even in his truly unique and peaceful society) about 'the one thing needful,' in the most effectual way;—*by paying the difference out of his own pocket;—without suffering either of the parties to know peace was purchased at the expense of his purse.* p. 121. This proves his thorough knowledge of human nature. We must treat our readers by a sight of a well drawn picture of the dignity and effect of a quaker preacher and sermon, and then desist from using our editorial scissors.

'Having lived during that interesting period, when the religious community to which he belonged was occupied with those considerations

which led to its purification from the iniquity of slavery, he took an active part in promoting that righteous work. His ardent and pathetic communications on this subject, in the select assemblies of his brethren, were powerful and irresistible. He awakened the unconcerned, confirmed the wavering, and infused energy into the most zealous. On one occasion, during the annual convention of the society at Philadelphia, when that body was engaged on the subject of slavery, as it related to its own members, some of whom had not wholly relinquished the practice of keeping negroes in bondage, a difference of sentiment was manifested as to the course which ought to be pursued. For a moment it appeared doubtful which opinion would preponderate. At this critical juncture, Benezet left his seat, which was in an obscure part of the house, and presented himself weeping at an elevated door in the presence of the whole congregation, whom he thus addressed, '*Ethiopia shall soon stretch out her hands unto God;*'* he said no more: under the solemn impression which succeeded this emphatic quotation, the proposed measure received the united sanction of the assembly.

We cannot think the colour and cut of a man's coat, or the quality of his cotton-velvet breeches, of so much importance as some parts of these memoirs indicate that many good men do; nor are we offended at a young lady's 'full dress for a ball,' or at Benezet's 'attitude of surprise,' and 'unsophisticated countenance' of regret, at 'her gala attire,' p. 110.

On the whole, we remark that Mr. Vaux has a stile neat and unassuming, but that it would have been well to have arranged in some order, the subjects of which his volume treats, under such heads as *Benezet's Personal History*, Correspondence, Publications, Benevolence, and Public Functions. He has nevertheless written a good book for all, but especially for the society of Friends.

ART. IV.—*A Diary of a Journey into North Wales, in the Year 1774; by Samuel Johanson, LL. D. Edited, with illustrative Notes, by R. Duppa, LL. B. Small 8vo. pp. 226. Jennings. London, 1816. From the British Review.*

IF accident were to throw in our way an old pocket-book, containing sundry useless hints and observations by a revered author, whose reputation could not be increased, and might possibly be diminished, by an ill-judged partiality of his friends, what would be the part of judicious kindness? Would it not be to suppress the manuscript, and to leave the world content and happy with the volumes already in their possession? But supposing, as in the case of Dr. Johnson, the public attention was actively excited, and the fair fame of the author far above the reach of posthumous detraction, might not a point be stretched for once, and the unfortunate pocket-book be presented to the gaze of rude curiosity, with all its imperfections on its head?

We will suppose this delicate question answered in the affirmative, and that in consequence every relic of Dr. Johnson, of whatever character or description, may be dragged into the light, and nailed to the pillory of public criticism and reprehension. We will

* Psalms, lxxviii. 31,

not ask whether the pages before us were intrinsically worth publishing, nor will we pause to inquire what would have been the feelings of Dr. Johnson had he witnessed this attempt to obtrude him into public day in an undress the most slovenly and incomplete. We will consider the question decided. Somebody may be benefited by the publication, and Dr. Johnson is out of the reach of the consequences. The only remaining consideration is the best mode and vehicle of publication; and here, more than in any other part of the arrangement, we shall see the advantage of procuring an enlightened and ingenious editor to conduct the whole affair.

The manuscript upon which Mr. Duppa has seen fit to employ his labours would not, if closely printed, have filled more, perhaps, than half a sheet of a common octavo work; so that, admitting it to be worth publication, few persons would have had the spirit to soar beyond the frail and ignoble vehicle of a monthly repository for its insertion. But the editor of a posthumous work of Dr. Johnson was not to be daunted by ordinary difficulties; nor could he be supposed willing to consign our illustrious moralist to the transitory pages of a periodical publication. A book—a well-printed, well-margined, *bona fide* book—must absolutely be achieved; and though there was not matter for an ordinary sheet, and what there was might be deemed by some unfit for publication, yet to have surrendered to trivial obstacles of this kind was evidently beneath the spirit of an experienced editor.

Let then the proposition be to manufacture a volume of two hundred and twenty-six pages out of the aforesaid materials; and difficult as may appear the solution of this interesting problem, we hope, with the assistance of Mr. Duppa, to render it quite intelligible to the dullest of our readers. In the first place, then, it will be expedient to dedicate the work to some friend, in two pages, to devote three leaves to the preface, two to the table of contents, and two to a fac-simile of the author's hand-writing.

After so hopeful a beginning, future progress will be comparatively easy; and we may therefore go on calmly to extend the given quantity of matter to the requisite dimensions. The way in which the concern must be managed is as follows: first provide for a margin, which is to surround the meagre page like the broad walls of a fortified city, in which there are perhaps scarcely twenty half-starved inhabitants to be found. You may then proceed with a liberal assortment of spaces, and *leads*, and *em* and *en* quadrats, and other ingenious mechanical helps and devices, to fill up the page, as besieged soldiers have been known to stuff ox-hides with straw, to convey an idea to the enemy of abundance within. Some people, however, will not be satisfied with appearances: it may be necessary therefore to admit *two* or *three* lines of solid text into a page—occasionally more; but the number must never exceed ten or twelve at the utmost; especially if the subject-matter be so intrinsically valuable as that which we are about to produce to our readers from the volume before us. As example is better than precept, and as it may be instructive to see how far the above-mentioned rules may be literally carried into effect, we shall copy verbatim the first *eight*

pages of Dr. Johnson's tour. We do this the more willingly, as it will enable our readers to appreciate fully the laudable art of manufacturing a book without materials, and give them an opportunity of judging how far the original text was worthy of the trouble which Mr. Duppa has bestowed upon it.

Page 1. 'July 5, Tuesday. We left Streatham 11 a. m. Price of 4 horses 2s. a mile.' Page 2. 'Barnet 1. 40'. p. m. On the road I read Tully's Epistles. At night at Dunstable. To Litchfield, 83 miles. To the Swan.' Page 3. 'To the cathedral.' Page 4. 'To Mrs. Porter's. To Mrs. Aston's.' Page 5. 'To Mr. Green's. Mr. Green's museum was much admired, and Mr. Newton's china.' Page 6. 'To Mr. Newton's. To Mrs. Cobb's. Page 7. 'Dr. Darwin's. I went again to Mrs. Aston's. She was very sorry to part.' Page 8. 'Breakfasted at Mr. Garrick's. Visited Miss Vyse.'

In this most interesting and edifying manner does the text proceed for a hundred and forty-nine pages; a victorious proof of what may be effected by art and judgment, in beating out a few grains—we cannot say of gold, but of the scorix and ashes of that metal, into a surface capable of covering by patches a considerable portion of a small octavo volume. The mind is not confused, as in many other works, by a breathless rapidity of narration, or the eye by that crowded typography which allows no repose to the reader. On the contrary, between page and page, and line and line, there is ample room for reflection and rumination, as well as for recording in the margin such remarks as the narrative may appear to suggest. For example, on looking back, we find the third page occupied with those most important and isolated words, 'the cathedral,' standing prominently and alone, like Stone-Henge, in the midst of a barren plain. Now, to many readers this will look like a waste of paper and of money; but when rightly considered, we shall see that much instruction, both graphical and moral, is to be derived from the circumstance. It is printing like a painter and philosopher; for who but beholds, in imagination, while he contemplates Mr. Duppa's page, this venerable cathedral reposing in unincumbered majesty in the midst of its spacious close, the eye expatiating upon a wide hot-pressed margin of paper, converted by the silent power of fancy into trim gravel-walks and avenues of stately elms. It would have been a lamentable want of taste in the admirer of Raphael and M. Angelo to have choked up the view of Litchfield cathedral with minor edifices. He has, therefore, like a judicious designer, devoted a whole page, for the sake, doubtless, of picturesque effect, to this simple object; and we must do him the justice to add, that 'the cathedral' bursts upon the eye in the printed page, with a prominence and relief which we could wish were more constantly imitated in the erection of real stone and mortar edifices, many of the finest of which, not excepting some of our cathedrals themselves, are almost lost to the artist and the man of taste, by the circumjacent buildings.

We have now seen with what excellent effect a *few lines* of letter-press may be judiciously expanded, as in the work before us,

over eight pages of superfine paper; and we shall, therefore, proceed to the further solution of our problem, the difficulties of which are by no means yet surmounted. It might chauce that some capacious reader, though delighted with the ingenuity of the project, might nevertheless think that, in some of the before-cited pages, it had been acted upon with rather too much spirit; and might, therefore, suggest the propriety of adding a few notes, by way of eking out a decent quantity of type. Such an expedient would not be lost upon an editor of genius, and he would in consequence open the narratives of Boswell and Piozzi, to find due matter for his purpose. Thus the mention of Streatham (p. 1.) affords an admirable opportunity of telling the world where it lies, and who lived there, while the succeeding pages furnish a natural apology for quotations to inform us who was Mrs. Porter, who was Mrs. Aston, who were Messrs. Green, Newton, Cobb, Darwin, Garrick, Vyse, &c. It may be fastidiously said that these notes are neither instructive nor entertaining, being only dry dates and names, connected with persons either well-known or not worth knowing; and further it may be objected that the narratives of Dr. Johnson, by Boswell, Hawkins, and Mrs. Thrale, are so easily accessible as to furnish no fair apology for long quotations from them; but even admitting these drawbacks, the notes have still the merit of filling up a few interstices of letter-press, and relieving the solitary appearance which '*the cathedral*' might otherwise have presented.

So far all is well, yet still it appears that after all these strenuous efforts the expansive powers of the manuscript, aided by all the favourable circumstances above mentioned, would fall rather short of an hundred and fifty pages, and the proposal, as we have seen, was to achieve no less than two hundred and twenty-six. But, as Virgil informed us long ago, that those can conquer who think they can conquer, nothing more is requisite than a little intrepidity to surmount even this obstacle. Suppose then, as not one syllable of the manuscript of the tour remains, we proceed to *seventeen* miscellaneous '*Observations and Remarks*' of Dr. Johnson's, which may be made by good management to occupy about *seven* subsidiary pages. These little strokes indicate a master, and render a volume doubly interesting to the scientific reader.

Having thus advanced manfully through dedication, preface, contents, fac simile, text, notes, and miscellanies, we arrive at the novel and interesting expedient of *thirty-two* pages of '*Appendix*,' which must consist of quotations, as follows: viz. Miss Seward's description of Lucy Porter, four pages; Dr. Taylor, three pages; Mr. Whateley's delineation of Dovedale, five pages, &c. &c.

The next resource was a master-piece of genius, and will at once astonish and delight the expecting reader. The process is as follows: Dr. Johnson writes a tour; a tour supposes post-horses, and post-horses naturally suggest the idea of *post-roads*. These premises duly considered, the whole plan flashes as irresistibly on the mind of a man of genius, as the doctrine of gravitation did upon that of sir Isaac Newton when he saw an apple falling from a tree.

Who can tell, doubtless thought our editor, but some enthusiastic admirer of Dr. Johnson might choose to travel again, at least in imagination, this celebrated 'Tour to North Wales;' and where can be the necessity of purchasing Carey's book of post-roads, when he has paid nine shillings for Johnson's perambulation already. The propriety of this reasoning is evident to the most ordinary capacity; or, at all events, the following note of Mr. Duppa will tend to render it so.

'That this work may be rendered *more useful*, the editor has subjoined an *Itinerary*, to show in one view the relative distances of the places mentioned in the *Diary*, which will assist the reader, and be of use to the tourist.'

Having thus magnanimously resolved upon an *Itinerary*, the hot-pressed page must be ruled with upright lines, exactly in the manner of an ordinary 'Post-chaise Companion.' After this effort of literary skill, two things only remain to be accomplished; namely, the already mentioned 'table of contents,' at the beginning, and a copious 'index,' of *fourteen pages*, at the end. We are aware that our readers will here exclaim that if the whole volume be such as we have described, and such as the first eight pages already quoted would appear to indicate, there can be no need of an index or table of contents at all, and much less for references more copious than the original manuscript itself. We pity those who reason in this contracted way, and shall proceed with our exposition of this editor's creative ability.

To avoid unfairness, we shall begin with the very first page, half of which is occupied with that interesting remark, '*We left Streatham 11 a. m.*' The text is apparently simple, and one might suppose would have furnished no occasion for note or comment; the full merits, therefore, of the plan pursued in this volume can be seen only by a proper *juxta* position of the various places in which 'Streatham' is produced. First, then, this important proper name takes its main position in the text; but it again meets the eye in the margin; and figures away a third time, with great splendour, in a note at the bottom of the page. In order, however, to prevent the possibility of forgetting so significant a place, being the point at which this memorable expedition commenced, Streatham announces itself in the table of contents; and stands a fifth time conspicuous in the index at the end. So much for '*We left Streatham.*'

The remaining half of the first page consists, as we have already seen, of the entertaining fact, 'Price of four horses 2*s.* a mile,' which of course furnishes a proper subject for the index, as follows, 'Post-horses, the price of four, per mile, in 1774.' Thus this instructive index, fourteen pages, is not only, in most cases, a complete duplicate of the text, but has often the merit of surpassing it, in the number of words and extent of information. Our editor had probably in his mind the story of the sailor on short allowance, who looked at his last dry biscuit through a multiplying

glass, in order to persuade himself and his friends that he was in possession of a respectable supply.

The merits of the second page, both in the intrinsic value of the text, and the felicities of illustration, fully equal those of the first. The first line, as already quoted, consists of the word '*Barnet*,' which every school-boy would thus immediately know was a substantive, by its characteristic property of standing alone. *Barnet* therefore is sounded in the text; *Barnet* is echoed in the margin; *Barnet* is re-echoed in the index; and *Barnet* is reverberated in the table of contents. Had it been but a few miles further on the road to Wales, it would also have had the honour of a place in the *Itinerary*.

The next passage (we quote regularly, to prevent the suspicion of unfairness) is as follows: '*On the road I read Tully's Epistles.*' Index, '*Tully's Epistles*, read by Dr. Johnson on his journey to Llewenny.' The same process is continued to '*Litchfield*,' &c., till we come to the fourth page, which is peculiarly interesting, and runs as follows: '*To Mrs. Porter's. To Mrs. Aston's!*' These two prolific ladies thus majestically fill a whole page of the text; but, not content with this, they aspire to the super-added dignity of two notices in the table of contents, two respectable notes in the body of the work, with two long articles in the appendix, as before rehearsed, and two references in the index, to which are added two references to the notes.

In this manner the work proceeds throughout, though not always '*passibus æquis*;' and so beautifully do the text and index correspond, that

Word nods to word, each sentence has a brother,

One half the volume just reflects the other;

an expedient of excellent use in impressing upon a sluggish memory those curious facts and illustrations with which the work abounds. We see the same image beautifully reflected from mirror to mirror, after the excellent plan of Turner's Latin Exercises—*ego amo te—tu amaris a me:—Guttæ cavent lapides—lapides caventur a guttis*. By way of magnifying still more the editor's skill, it should be observed that the illustrations do not always take their leap from the text; but sometimes a note is elegantly and judiciously surmounted upon a note. Thus, Dr. Johnson happened to make a cursory remark upon Mr. Middleton's dinner; this gives occasion to a long quotation from Boswell; Boswell's note leads the way to an article in the appendix from Mrs. Thrale; and the whole is concluded with this savory reference in the index:—'*Cookery, dilated upon by Dr. Johnson;—what Dr. Johnson was fond of.*'

In this manner are broken sentences, hints, shreds, patches, the mutilated legs and wings of ideas, brought forward, under the venerable name of Dr. Johnson, to produce an equivalent for nine '*splendid shillings*.' If Johnson called a false copy of one of his letters an *adumbration*, what would he have said to these adumbrations of an adumbration? It is thus that Mr. Duppa has avoided the application of his own introductory remark, that 'to publish

whatever has fallen from the pen of a celebrated author has been reckoned among the vices of the time.'

We have endeavoured to do justice to Mr. Duppa's merit, in giving this fragment of the great colossus; we are therefore not to be blamed if, after all that we have written, our readers should pertinaciously reason as follows. There were but two cases which would justify the publication of Dr. Johnson's *Adversaria* in a form like the present; a form in which they will be handed over the world and down to posterity. One of these cases would have existed, if there had really been a dearth of intelligence relative to this extraordinary man; but after all the volumes which have been written respecting him, there could be no valid plea of this description. His journeys, his modes of life, his habits of composition, and his most cursory remarks, have been faithfully and minutely—often too faithfully and too minutely—transcribed and published; his privacies have been violated, and every means devised to satiate the public curiosity. The only other circumstance, which would have authorized the publication of these unfinished notes of his tour in a handsome volume, would have been the existence of a finished volume, afterwards published by himself on the subject. In this case the world might have felt a gratification in contrasting the perfect page with the imperfect note-book, the magnificent fabric with the slight and indistinct sketch. But even, to gratify this natural curiosity, materials are not wanting in the pages of Boswell, Hawkins, and other biographers. Their minute industry has preserved many fragments, from which we may see the gradations of Johnson's mind, and his habits of literary labour, from the first slight hint to a finished Rambler. If no other portrait had been in existence, we should have been glad of the rough and incorrect sketch now before us; but where so many good likenesses were to be procured, what need was there for the addition of a bad one?

All this may be very true; but it shall not induce us to retract our admiration of Mr. Duppa's skill in the arcana of intellectual economy, and the mystery of book-making. We must not, however, give to partiality what belongs to justice. The plain truth is, that the author has supplied a little help, and the following passage will show that the editor has not made his Venus entirely out of the froth of the sea, or manufactured his ivory without a little fragment of the elephant's tooth.

'We saw Hawkestone, the seat of sir Rowland Hill, and were conducted by Miss Hill over a large tract of rocks and woods; a region abounding with striking scenes and terrific grandeur. We were always on the brink of a precipice, or at the foot of a lofty rock; but the steep was seldom naked: in many places, oaks of uncommon magnitude shot up from the crannies of stone; and where there were no trees, there were underwoods and bushes.

'Round the rocks is a narrow path, cut upon the stone, which is very frequently hewn into steps; but art has proceeded no further than to make the succession of wonders safely accessible. The whole circuit

is somewhat laborious; it is terminated by a grotto, cut in the rock to a great extent, with many windings, and supported by pillars, not hewn into regularity, but such as imitate the spots of nature, by asperities and protuberances.

'The place is without any dampness, and would afford an habitation not uncomfortable. There were from space to space seats cut out in the rock. Though it wants water, it excels Dovedale by the extent of its prospects, the awfulness of its shades, the horrors of its precipices, the verdure of its hollows, and the loftiness of its rocks: the ideas which it forces upon the mind are, the sublime, the dreadful, and the vast. Above is inaccessible altitude, below is horrible profundity. But it excels the garden of Ilam only in extent.

'Ilam has grandeur tempered with softness; the walker congratulates his own arrival at the place, and is grieved to think he must ever leave it. As he looks up to the rocks, his thoughts are elevated; as he turns his eyes on the valleys, he is composed and soothed.

'He that mounts the precipices at Hawkestone, wonders how he came thither, and doubts how he shall return. His walk is an adventure, and his departure an escape. He has not the tranquillity, but the horrors of solitude; a kind of turbulent pleasure, between fright and admiration.

'Ilam is the fit abode of pastoral virtue, and might properly diffuse its shades over nymphs and swains. Hawkestone can have no fitter inhabitants than giants of mighty bone and bold emprise; men of lawless courage and heroic violence. Hawkestone should be described by Milton, and Ilam by Parnel.' p. 38—43.

Mr. Duppa will pardon us if we dismiss him with an assurance that this is the only occasion on which we shall spare his time and talents to such an employment as that which has given birth to this publication.

ART. V.—1. *XIVme Exposition Publique de la Société Royale d'Agriculture et de Botanique, de la ville de Gand*, 6, 7, 8 et 9 *Fevrier*, 1816. Ghent. 1816. pp. 12.

2. *Bouquet offert aux Bienfaiteurs de la Société Royale d'Agriculture et de Botanique, à Gand*. Par N. Cornelissen, membre de cette société. Ghent. 1816. pp. 19.

THERE is, it seems, at Ghent, a society, called the Royal Society of Agriculture and Botany, the object of whose association is the advancement of agricultural, and, more particularly, botanical knowledge. They have annual exhibitions, and bestow premiums at stated periods, after the manner of the Royal Institution at London and our Academy of Fine arts; but that, instead of paintings and statuary, they display flowers, remarkable for elegance or novelty, and newly discovered or newly imported plants, distinguished by their rarity or usefulness.

It is their custom, also, at these exhibitions, to dedicate certain flowers, or groups of flowers, to particular individuals among their own members, to whom that fanciful compliment is decreed.

Thus much we have thought necessary to say, explanatory of the two little productions, the titles of which are cited above. The

first is merely a list of the flowers and plants exhibited, and the persons honoured with dedicated groups. But it derives no slight degree of interest from the circumstance of our finding, in company with his majesty the king of the Netherlands, and many other high dignitaries, the names of a number of our countrymen, to whom the same compliment is paid.

During the conferences between the American and British commissioners, which terminated in the treaty of Ghent, several of the gentlemen attached to the American legation became honorary members of this society; and it is highly gratifying to observe the great estimation in which they seem to have been held.

Thus to the king of the Netherlands the yotive group is formed of, 1. the *Strelitzia Regina*, 2. the *Pyrus Japonica*, and, in almost immediate succession, to Mr. Henry Clay (the speaker of the house of Representatives), 1. the *Kalmia Glauca*, 2. the *Kamellia Japonica*. To Mr. Gallatin, 1. the *Cytisus purpureus*, 2. the *phylica capitala*; and to Mr. Adams, 1. the *Aletræmeria ligtu*, and the *Erica ignescens*. We also find the name of Mr. Muhlenbergh, of Lancaster, among a number of dukes, counts, and barons. And to the memory of the late Mr. Bayard a beautiful and affecting tribute. By an unanimous order of the society, a *cypress* was placed in the saloon, to which this epitaph was attached.

D. M.

JACOBO BAYARD,
Wilmingtonio, Columbio.

Genere et nomine clarò

Virtutibus clarior;

Uni ex quinque viris,

Per S. P. Q. Americanorum

Ut patrias res et civium jura

Iterum a Brittanis læssæ

Brittanos contra

tueretur,

Gandam misso;

dum natale solum

dulcesque et uxorem et liberas

quos multum amabat

felix patriæ libertatis vindex

vix reviserat et deosculatus fuerat

Vita functo.

Socio de se bene merito

hanc cupressum

Functa inani sed testante luctum munere

grata et memor

dicat vovetque

Societas regia Georgicorum et botanophilorum

Gandavensis

VI. die mensis Februarii, anni 1816.

The other, entitled by its author the *Bouquet*, is an oration or address, delivered to the society by a gentleman, to whom, for his

liberal and favourable opinion, this country is under obligations. We subjoin a translation of the whole of it, because we wish our readers to know how kindly the state of science in America is, at least *sometimes*, spoken of on the other side of the Atlantic. The eloquent eulogium of Mr. Cornelissen on the much lamented Mr. Bayard is in the highest degree interesting and gratifying to our national feelings. He has justly appreciated that distinguished man; and the partiality of Mr. Cornelissen towards him and this country in general, all Americans must be pleased to learn, and anxious to reciprocate. The Bouquet (except the title-page) reads in English thus:

REPORT,

Followed by certain propositions, read and adopted in the meeting of the society, the 13th of October, 1816. By N. Cornelissen, member of the society, honorary secretary of the Royal Academy of Design, and of the Royal Society of the Fine Arts at Ghent.

GENTLEMEN—I am confident that you will receive this report, and my propositions, with that kind attention which you always give to your fellow-members, when they speak of the interests of the science whose advancement is so dear to you; but I have a further claim to your indulgence: I shall make you acquainted with your new patrons.

Our late president, Mr. J. X. Vande Woestyne, whose memory we venerate, was pleased, in one of his annual discourses, to explain what he termed the *mythology* of botanists, and reflecting on the fortunate circumstances of the residence of the American ministers within our walls, and the departure of a governor-general for the island of Java, he predicted new advantages to the worship of FLORA. ‘Associated with our institution,’ said he, ‘the ministers will join us in advancing its interests; millions of plants, unknown in Europe, live exiled in the vast regions which surround the immense rivers of America; many others grow here among us, which America has never seen: under happy auspices, new exchanges will enrich each hemisphere: a few months more, and other *Azaleas*, other *Andromedas*, will embellish our parterres; and already your gratitude has commenced these new relations.’*

And placing himself in idea upon that *fifth* part of the globe, where the names of *Holland*, *Zealand*, *Vandiemien*, and so many others, recall his country, and a thousand honourable recollections, ‘Here,’ said he, ‘in this yet virgin soil, at the base of the gigantic *Eucalypta*, grow unknown, without glory and without a name, plants which, discovered and introduced among us, will excel the *male-leuca*, the *metrosiderus*, and the *mimosa*: others perhaps will equal in usefulness the precious tubercle imported from America, which is a gift of Providence to our state.

‘Our prayers,’ added he, addressing the new governor, ‘shall precede you in the mission you are called to fill; your prince, your

* The finest rose produced by culture at Ghent, in the summer of 1815, solemnly received the title of ‘*Congress of Ghent*.’

country, and science, will hope the happiest consequences. The *Flora* of Belgium will have in you a minister towards one of the extremities of the world, and her worship a missionary full of zeal and fervour.'

Mr. Van Toers and Mr. Verbeck, in their report, have given eloquent expression to our gratitude towards his excellency the baron de Capellan, who, having reached the *Cape*, sought already to prove he had not forgotten us. Many seeds have been sent, by means of Mr. Van Hulthem, and plants confided to the paternal, I had almost said religious care of Mr. Mussche, have seen the light, grow and flourish, under a master who knows how to accustom them gradually to sun-beams less ardent, and a temperature less equable.*

His majesty the king has given an example of munificence, and have we not reason to expect protection and encouragement from a prince, descended from that William I. celebrated as the founder of the republic, and who has such particular claim to the gratitude of botanists? He founded the university of Leyden, where an asylum was given to two of the most renowned botanical writers of Belgium in the sixteenth century, Dodone of Malines and Clusius of Anas.

It remains for me to tell you, gentlemen, that our hopes seem not less justified, on the part of the new colleagues which the society has gained in the part of America where that one of the two *FLORAS* which sympathizes the best with ours, has fixed her empire.

A few details, more at length, may not displease you, since they will communicate information, lately acquired, respecting the actual state of science in these far countries, and certain learned men who cultivate it.

And first to speak of our colleagues, two only of the members of the congress of pacification were to have returned to America. One, Mr. Henry Clay, of Lexington, again occupies the station of speaker of the house of representatives. The other, Mr. Christopher Hughes, of Baltimore, secretary of the legation, after having performed with dignity another mission to Carthage, in South America, now sits among the representatives of the nation.

The four others were to have remained in Europe, as ambassadors, and two of them actually reside in that quality, Mr. John Quincy Adams at London, and Mr. John Russel at Stockholm.

Mr. Bayard had been appointed to the court of St. Petersburg. When about to embark at Portsmouth, feeling himself attacked by a disease destined to conduct him to the tomb, he longed to draw

* Public spirit at Ghent seconds, in an admirable manner, all the efforts to augment our vegetable wealth. Few vessels sail to foreign ports, without instructions being given to the captains to bring home seeds and shrubs. Very recently Messrs. Von Aker have imported some from St. Bartholomew's: the cocotels of the botanic garden came from a nut given by Messrs. De Cock; and the lobster-fishery, on the coast of Norway, suggested to Mr. Von Imaschoot the idea of seeking there for seeds and plants.

his last breath in his own country, in that free and happy Columbia whose rights and independence he had so strenuously maintained. The prayer was granted by that Providence which had endowed this excellent man with the purest, most exalted soul. He lived but to behold for a few short hours his native town of Wilmington. The tears of his family, the lamentations of his countrymen, the public mourning of the senate, and above all the lively remembrance of his virtues and his talents, are an honourable tribute to his memory; and yourselves, gentlemen, have, by a touching and solemn homage, given expression to your regret, when, in your winter exhibition, a *cypress* (that sad and funereal tree, not indigenous in the United States*), marked the spot where you had before displayed the olive of America.†

The right honourable James Bayard was worthy that high homage, voted by acclamation.

Descended from monarchical France, a monarchy formerly absolute, he professed, without moroseness, the principles of a republican; the weight of a name eminently monarchical did not dismay him; he bore that name with pride. Under Francis I. he would have been at Marignan, the firmest supporter of his king, as in 1814 another *Bayard* would have combatted England beneath the walls of Baltimore. His family, it is said, have continued, and their seal presents the arms of the French warrior. But what could we infer from that isolated circumstance? It was in his virtues that we recognized the man '*sans peur et sans reproche*.'

The fourth of those of the ministers who were to remain in Europe was Mr. Albert Gallatin, a Genevan by birth. Already accredited as ambassador at the court of France, an unforeseen occurrence (the return of Napoleon Bonaparte, and the departure of Louis XVIII.) afforded him a motive for revisiting America. Our illustrious colleague carried letters from Mr. Vande Woeystyne, then our president, to the Rev. Mr. Henry Muhlenberg, minister of the gospel at Lancaster, in Pennsylvania, to Mr. Benjamin Barton, professor of medicine at Philadelphia, and to Dr. David Hosack, professor of botany in Columbia college, at New York, three men whose fame is not less European than American, and who are well known to those among us not unacquainted with the annals of science.

You selected these three philosophers, among many others, as men not only of distinguished merit and well-deserved celebrity, but possessed of that zeal and fervour which excite to make proselytes, and to extend the sphere of learning, as well as that facility of communication and amenity of manner which add so great a charm to scientific communications, and, more rare in other branches of science, seem natural to the cultivators of botany.

* *Cupressus sempervirens*. *Linn.*

Et non plebeius luctus testata cupressus. *Juv.*

† *Olea Americana*. *Linn.*

It was by the aid of these men Mr. Gallatin hoped to realize great advantage to our society. But death, who loves to disappoint the best founded calculations, and the best conceived hopes, had appointed the end of Mr. Muhlenberg. He is no more. Professor Barton, also, if I rightly understand a paragraph concerning him, is now no more.*

Mr. David Hosack survives; but living at a great distance from Fayette county, the residence of Mr. Gallatin, and from Washington, the seat of government, how could he have an opportunity to see, how could he meet the ambassador, before his departure for Europe? Chance, or, as those among us would rather say, whose beautiful mythology admits the intervention of a Providence, in all that concerns the transplanting and the growth of plants, Flora herself conducted Mr. Gallatin to New York, where the Elgin Botanic Garden, founded in 1801 by the same David Hosack, is now the most superb establishment in that part of the world, dedicated to that science. A communication has thus been opened between the Belgic Flora and the Flora of Columbia, and shall not be interrupted; a very obliging letter, from our colleague to the president of the society, attests and guarantees it: but it was not then known to the American botanist that Mr. Vande Woestyne also was no more.

Thus death extends his ravages to the two extremities of the world: he traverses the ocean with the speed of lightning; like the thunder-bolt he strikes now on this, now on the other side of the Atlantic, and the more or less distant rolling of the thunder announces only whether the stroke has fallen near us or afar.

Reflections upon death fill us with sadness; yet we yield to them, in spite of ourselves, and that very melancholy is not without its charm. The man dies—the plant dies too; but in *this*, more blessed than man, whose virtues and whose talents too oft descend with him to the grave, the plant, even in its scions, beholds itself successively embellished; cultivation adds to the dignity of its stature, to the graces of its flower, and each daughter surpassing in beauty the beauty of its mother, deserves the application of the verse of Horace, which contains this sentiment.† Let us leave these images, and return to the subject of this discourse.

Mr. Gallatin, like the baron de Capellan, was desirous to acquire a claim to the gratitude of European botanists, and imported into our continent a great number of seeds, which have been confided to our chief gardener.

* I ventured to anticipate the intentions of the society, in asking information from Mr. Gallatin, and at the same time from Mr. Pictet, of Geneva, who, in his magazine of July last, announces that a new edition of the *Elements of Botany* of the late professor Barton had just been published at Philadelphia. Is this Mr. Barton the same with Mr. Benjamin Smith Barton, professor in the university of Pennsylvania, who was alive in the month of March last? That is the question. Mr. Barton, if he still lives, will see in the anticipated expression of our fears what pleasure he will give us in removing them.

† O matre pulchra filia pulchrior. L. i. od. 16.

Undoubtedly from the whole number some plants will grow that are already known and naturalized among us; but should there be but *ten*, should there even be but *one*, which was hitherto unknown to us, ought our joy to be less pure, our gratitude less lively?

How will these sentiments be increased, when, among the plants which are about to vegetate in our garden, we salute new species of the *Jeffersonia*, of the *Bartonia*, and of that *Muhlenbergia* consecrated to the memory of our deceased colleague.

In the future presents of this kind, the seeds of those plants which are already in our collections may be excluded. In those which, on our side, we transmit to the United States, we shall take care not to include such as we know to be indigenous or naturalized there.

For this purpose we have only to consult the respective catalogues of our vegetable riches, and to point out on each side those in which we are deficient.

Mr. Mussche is engaged in forming our catalogue according to the classification of Linneus. A *Hortus Gandavensis*, thus conceived and executed, was wanting to the annals of science: it is anxiously expected, and will increase the reputation of its author.

We have received through Mr. Gallatin two analogous works of eminent merit.

The first is entitled '*Catalogus Plantarum America Septentrionalis hoc usque cognitarum, indigenarum et cicurum, auctore Henrico Muhlenberg.*'

In this collection, which must be very rare as yet in Europe, the learned author has classed all the plants, either indigenous or naturalized, at this day known in the United States. He has arranged them according to the Linnean system, and opposite each name he places five columns, which contain—the first, a word as to the *calyx*—second, as to the *corolla*—third, the scientific name, in Latin, of the genus and species—fourth, the vulgar name in English, if there be one—and fifth, the place where the plant grows spontaneously, and the season at which it flourishes in Pennsylvania.

This catalogue comprehends altogether nine hundred and eight *genera*. Many plants, which are indigenous in America, have been supposed originally natives of Europe, and we learn, not without surprise, our errors on this point; but first it will be necessary to examine if certain genera, classed by Muhlenberg under various names, have not been known in Europe by other appellations.

This is easily discovered, by comparing this work with another which I have before me, the *Hortus Elginensis* of professor Hosack, in which all the species are distinctly marked with their Linnean names, or with those given to them by Willdenow, Michaux, Lamarck, Curt-Sprengel, and other classic botanists.

This interesting work is preceded by an introduction, in the form of an account of the establishment of the Elgin garden, near New York, its first patrons, and of the men who in that part of the world do honour to our science. An engraving, in very elegant taste,

and very finely executed, placed as a frontispiece, shows the perspective of the garden, its noble green-houses, and what we call here *the orangery*. These buildings are an hundred and eighty feet in front; the whole garden like that of Ghent, and also, with the exception of the part appropriated to display the plants in their Linnean order, seems to resemble the rustic style of Kent, rather than the more monotonous regularity of Le Notre.

You will be pleased to learn that, in the same manner that our garden continues to be the particular object of municipal solicitude, that of Elgin also is under the superintendence of the state of New York, which purchased the establishment in 1810, and endowed it with great liberality. Its founder has had, as we have, the rare good fortune to find a gardener not less intelligent than active and zealous. Mr. Frederick Pursh has been to Mr. Hosack what Mr. I. H. Mussche is to us.

I lay these two works upon the table; but you will permit me, on this occasion to make a remark, which occurred to me in searching for the *Azalea* in the Elgin garden. Would you think it? I found but three species—the *nudiflora*, the *pontica* (for this is also described as indigenous there), and the *viscosa*; all the others are called so many varieties merely—the *glauca*, for instance, the *odorata*, and the *vitata* of the *Azalea viscosa*; the *calendulacea* of the *Azalea pontica*, the *alba*, the *bicolor*, the *carnea*, the *coccinea*, the *cutilans* of the *Azalea nudiflora*.

Am I not authorized to infer, from this example, that many among us are accustomed to multiply too far what we call the *species* of exotic plants? I conceive that culture, other climates, and new habitudes, change or modify the colour and form of a flower, and the stature even of the plant; but I cannot believe that the art of the botanist can create a new *species*, if I rightly understand that word.

But little initiated in the science, and therefore the less able to express my idea with clearness, I perhaps advance an opinion that may appear unfounded and easily refutable. Yet at least let me once more rejoice in the happiness of our little corner of the world, to be richer than America herself in American plants.

Among the other works which Mr. Professor Hosack sent to the society, you will find the first volume of 'Transactions of the Literary and Philosophical Society of New York,' instituted by an act of the legislature of that province, in 1814.

This volume, in large quarto, printed with a magnificence of typography equal to the most correct and most elegant specimens that we have in Europe, is perhaps the only copy on this continent: it is but lately printed, and contains the proceedings of 1815. We find in it nothing particularly relative to botany or agriculture, but it includes memoirs on zoology, ichthyology, and ornithology, which are of the greatest interest. The future volumes will, without doubt, contain some which will enter the sphere of our researches and our studies, and which it will be desirable to collect.

By an order of the faculty of Columbia college, it is directed that at appointed times each professor shall give an analysis of his course of lectures. This analysis, in a very lucid form, is here added, entitled 'Syllabus of the Course of Lectures on Botany, &c. by Dr. Hosack.'

Some other works, appertaining more to medicine and surgery, Mr. Hosack seems to have chosen, because they are of a recent date. Among these you will distinguish a very interesting treatise, called 'Observations on the Laws governing the Communication of Contagious Diseases,' &c., as well as a description and method of cure of a singular case of *anthrax*.

You will observe also a 'Treatise on Mineralogy,' by Dr. John Murray, printed last June, at New York.

These books are probably as yet unknown in Europe; and perhaps you will think fit to agree to the proposal which I make to you, of referring them either to Mr. professor Veerbeek, your secretary, or to Drs. Van Rotterdam and F. Vander Woestyne, for them to examine whether these writings do not contain some novel observations, some truths hitherto unperceived, which it would be useful to make known in Europe, by means of the journals devoted to medical and chirurgical discoveries.

Finally, as you have already accepted a copy of a splendid work on the American war of independence, given to me by Mr. Paine Todd, stepson of the president, Mr. Madison, and secretary of Mr. Gallatin, at the congress of Ghent, I pray you to receive a collection of numbers of a journal of knowledge and literature, published at Philadelphia, under the title of the 'Analectic Magazine.' The set is not complete; but that very circumstance is not without interest, since the death alone of Mr. Bayard, from whom I received them, prevented his sending me the remaining numbers.

I pray you, gentlemen, to deposit these American productions in the library of the society. Inhabitants of a province so agricultural as Flanders, and of a town so distinguished among commercial and manufacturing cities, you can never receive with indifference any thing which draws you closer to a free and enlightened nation, that, like you, aims to found her prosperity on the improvement of her agriculture, the freedom of her commerce, and the development of her industry—a nation on which Providence seems also to intend, at some day, to bestow the empire of the seas—an empire from which she will exclude all other nations, if the spirit of ambition, that sure precursor of national decay, lead her astray, but which she will share with all, if principles of equity and moderation continue to direct her in the path of her true interest.

I conclude this report, gentlemen, with requesting the vice-president to submit to you for deliberation,

1. Whether it is not expedient that the president be instructed to render, in the name of the society, our thanks to his excellency Mr. Albert Gallatin, ambassador from the United States at the court of France, and, through him, to Mr. David Hosack, professor of botany and *materia medica* at New York.

2. Whether it is not expedient, since the number of our members is not limited by rule, to associate with us some in that part of the world, as well for the sake of repairing our losses as to extend our botanical and agricultural relations.

You will see more clearly the fitness and utility of this measure, when you recollect that among the Americans collected at the congress of Ghent, the majority were not familiar with the study of botany, perhaps because, by taste, or the habit of different studies, they had acquired a preference for other sciences, whether of literature, or history, or the fine arts; perhaps because the elevated stations which they are called to fill impose on them other cares and duties, claiming more seriously their attention.

We have therefore need to associate with us new correspondents, who may be initiated in the principles of the science, or who cultivate it with intelligence and *con amore*. It would be useful also to choose such, whose abodes are separated by great distance. Figure to yourselves the vast extent of the United States, which, in their different latitudes, possess all the various temperatures of our continent. The *Andromeda rhomboidalis*, which you expect from Florida, cannot be sent to you by the botanists inhabiting the shores of Ontario: the distance is equal to that from Spain to the north of Europe. The season is so much later in some of the provinces than in others, that the author of the 'Catalogue of American Plants' takes care to observe, that the same species of *Muhlenbergia* flowers in Georgia during the month of March, and in Philadelphia not until June.

It follows, therefore, I conceive, that in selecting correspondents in certain parts of the United States of America, more or less distant from each other, we should be governed by the same rule as in making such a choice at Paris, London, Edinburgh, Berlin, and places separated from us by more considerable distances.

The partiality natural to Americans towards a town which received their ministers with so much affection, and where was concluded a pacification that they regard as the honourable recompense of their firmness and courage; this partiality will facilitate our communications; and I dare confidently to assure you, that, in these vast and rich domains of Flora, where so many flowers and plants, yet unknown, await both their *Linnean* appellation and (if I may use the expression) the *sacrament* of their classification—where each nymph, each dryad, which animates them, awaits her worshippers, the friends of the goddess will hasten to reciprocate our prayers. Are not our religion, our rites the same? Are not the dogmas of the immortal Swede propagated by his apostles and their *neophytes*, unanimously received? And Flora, on the summit of the Alps, and of the Pyrenees, as among the anfractuosities of the Cordilleras and of Caucasus, in the plains watered by the Escaut, as on the borders of the Thames, at Geneva as at Rome, is she not every where the object of the same universal adoration, which unites all who profess it in the same communion?

If you adopt my propositions, I will have the honour to place before you a list of a number of American botanists and amateurs, who have deserved well of science. I have more particularly designated *five*, among whom I propose as an honorary member,

Mr. Jefferson, already admitted to many learned societies in Europe, formerly president of the United States, and now cultivating his estate at Monticello:

And as corresponding members,

1. Mr. Stephen Elliot, president of the Literary and Philosophical Society of North Carolina. The Rev. Mr. Muhlenberg records the services received by him from Mr. Elliot, in his botanical researches.

2. Mr. William Bartram, a relation, perhaps son, of Mr. John Bartram, to whom we owe certain botanical observations, during a journey which he made to the lakes of Canada. Mr. W. Bartram is himself a very distinguished botanist.

3. Mr. Frederick Pursh, the gardener at the Elgin establishment, who in that quality has the best opportunity to know and appreciate the respective wants of the two gardens, a learned man besides, and well skilled in the knowledge of American plants.

4. Mr. Gaspard Wistar Eddy, nephew of Professor Hosack, who, although still young, has gained a name among the pupils of that professor, by discoveries recently made in his botanical researches.

If, according to the rule, you receive as candidates the botanists or friends to the science, whom I have just named, I beg my fellow-members to support my proposition, and to submit the nominations, in the usual form, to the first general meeting which shall take place.

N. CORNELISSEN.

The meeting adopted the above report, and the question being put on the propositions with which it concludes, they were referred to the first general meeting of the society, and the proceedings ordered to be printed.

F. VERBEECK, *Perpetual Secretary.*

There follows a note, containing a list of Americans, whom Mr. Cornelissen recommends as worthy of being elected members of the society. We find the names of

Dr. Benjamin S. Barton, professor at Philadelphia, William Bartram, author of several botanical works at Philadelphia, Peter Billy, of Virginia, Zaccheus Collins, of Philadelphia, Dr. Manasses Cutler, of Massachusetts, Gustavus Dallman, of South Carolina, the Rev. Christian Danke, of Nazareth and Canada, Stephen Elliott, of Beaufort, S. C. Dr. Frederick Kampman, of Pennsylvania, Matthias Kin, the Rev. Samuel Kramsch, of South Carolina, John Lyon, Bernard M'Millon, Dr. James Mease, of Philadelphia, Dr. S. L. Mitchell, of New York, Christopher Muller, of the western part of Pennsylvania, Henry Moore, of Tennessee, P. E. Muhlenberg, of New York, Frederick Pursh, of New York, the Rev. Jacob Van Vleck, of Pennsylvania.

ART. VI.—*Medical Jurisprudence. Foderé Médecine légale*, 8vo, 6 vols. Paris, 1813. *Orfila Toxicologie générale considérée, sous les Rapports de la Physiologie, de la Pathologie, et de la Médecine légale*, Paris, 1815.—From the Journal of Science and the Arts.

OUR attention has been directed to the science of Medical Jurisprudence or *State Medicine*, as it is termed in Germany, by some recent publications of considerable merit. As a science it is not known in this country, nor does it form any part of the necessary studies of the medical practitioner. In the present paper, we shall point out what we consider to be its leading branches; and we are so convinced of the benefit which would result to mankind from a more general attention to this science, that we shall not apologise for having entered on a subject which may probably be considered not to be immediately within the limits of our journal. The science of Medical Jurisprudence comprehends the evidence and opinions necessary to be given in courts of justice, by practitioners, on all subjects relating to their profession: according to the English laws, the testimony or the opinions of medical men are not directly required, though it is usual in certain cases, to require their evidence on professional subjects: public attention has been of late called to the laws now in force relating to coroner's inquests, and the mode in which they are administered. This subject is intimately connected with Medical Jurisprudence. Without wishing to discuss the propriety of the laws for the punishment of suicide, so far as they relate to the forfeiture of property, and the giving publicity to the offence; there can be little question but that the exposure of the body of the suicide is not consonant to the feelings of the present age; and yet it cannot be forgotten, that within a short period the body of an unfortunate wretch was, in open day, dragged in procession along the public way, headed by the civil power. Very slight evidence, or rather no evidence at all, but merely the discretion of the coroner, is sufficient to procure a verdict of lunacy; and that such verdicts are often corruptly procured, no person who has attended to the proceedings of coroners' inquests, can have any doubt. It may be questioned whether an ignominious burial has any direct tendency to the prevention of suicide; and unless it is clearly established that it has, in an enlightened age like the present, so barbarous and disgusting a law should be abolished, or at least why should not the very fact of suicide be considered in *all* cases, as affording evidence of insanity? It is of the utmost importance to the due administration of justice that the evidence before the coroner should be complete and correct. To insure this, it will be requisite that enactments should be made, at once regulating the mode of producing such evidence, and the class of persons by whom it is to be given. Several instances of the grossest neglect and irregularity in the evidence of medical persons have come to our knowledge; the following is one of the most flagrant:—a servant had died in consequence of poison; it was supposed she had taken it purposely, though she

stated that it was taken by her as a dose of salts which had been carelessly left about by another servant: there was, however, reason to suspect that she had been pregnant, and had lately miscarried. The prejudice was considerably excited in favour of the deceased having taken the poison accidentally. Two medical gentlemen of eminence attended to examine the body; the apothecary who was to give evidence before the coroner, was also in attendance; and as, from the early part of the examination, there was little question but that the woman had been pregnant, on the examination proceeding, the apothecary actually left the room, stating, that as he was to be examined before the coroner, if he gave any evidence which might seem prejudicial to the character of the deceased, it would seriously affect his professional interests in the neighbourhood! Now, in this case, independently of false evidence having been in fact given before the coroner, injustice was done to the servant who was supposed to have brought the poison into the house. In order to insure proper attention and skill on the part of medical persons who may be called in to give their evidence before coroners, we should propose that in addition to the usual course of education, all medical students should be required to attend a certain number of lectures exclusively on the subject of Medical Jurisprudence, in which their attention would be particularly called to those parts of the science of medicine, respecting which they would be liable to be called upon to give their opinions, in courts of justice, with peculiar directions as to the nature of the proof required, and the effect of their testimony. In addition to this, we conceive much benefit would arise from the prescribing particular rules to be adopted in all cases of sudden or suspicious death; and making it imperative on the coroner to employ particular medical persons (who should be remunerated); and for this purpose a certain number of practitioners in each county, who had previously passed such examination as might be thought fit, should be named as the persons to be employed by the coroner; and that every such examination should be made according to certain directions to be determined on, and a report of it in writing signed and sworn to by the person making it. In order to facilitate the mode of making these examinations and reports, certain printed formulæ might be devised, stating the mode of examination to be pursued, and the results; such formulæ, of course to be varied according to circumstances. This is the mode adopted in France, and in other countries in Europe, and from the adoption of which we conceive much benefit would arise. The reporter might still be examined *viva voce*, either before the coroner, or on the trial. Independent of the improvement which would result from this, in the administration of justice, much good would arise from the removal of doubt and suspicion in the public, which is often misled by the evidence given before coroners, on medical subjects, owing to the unfitness of the persons employed. There can be little question, that had the examinations and analysis been skilfully made, no public disturbance or discontent would have arisen in the case of Elizabeth Fenning, who was executed for an attempt to poison the family of a stationer, in Chancery-lane.

The evidence of medical men, amongst lawyers, is a subject of general animadversion; and indeed it is impossible to refer to the several printed trials, such as those of Spencer, Cowper, Donellan, and others, without astonishment at the inconsistency and uncertainty which seems to have pervaded the opinions of former medical practitioners.

It may also be expected, that much good will result from the canvassing the points necessary to be attended to, in examinations of the nature we have mentioned, and that greater skill will be attained, and important discoveries made, in the application of remedies in cases of suspended animation, the administration of poison, &c. respecting which little attention seems to have been paid by the generality of the present practitioners—at least those of the second class; and it is amongst the second class that skill and knowledge in this branch of science is particularly required, as they are most frequently called upon in cases of poison, &c.

The first directions respecting the consulting medical men, in the administration of justice, in any modern code, is in the *Constitutio Criminalis Carolina* of Charles V., which enacts, that the evidence of medical men shall be taken in cases of violent death, poison, child murder, &c.; and now, by the laws of most of the states in the continent of Europe, their evidence is required in similar cases. The code Napoleon, one of the most singular productions of modern jurisprudence, gives, at considerable length, the rules to be observed in making the necessary reports, and in the testimony on medical subjects connected with jurisprudence.

The most distinguished works on this science, amongst the Germans, are, the *Pandectæ Medico-legales*, of Valentini, 1702; the works of Plenck, Frank, and Sikora, together with the *Colatio Opusculorum Selectorum ad Medicinam Forensem spectantium: curante Schlegel*, 1787.

Amongst the Italians, Paul Zacchias is most distinguished. Ambrose Paré was the first in France who treated on this subject; and the *Medicine Légale et Police Médicale*, of M. Mahon; 'the Course of Legal Medicine,' of M. Belloc; the *Medicine Légale* of M. Foderé, and the *Toxicology* of M. Orfila, are amongst the most eminent of the modern French works on the subject. In this country, with the exception of the Lectures of Dr. Duncan, of Edinburgh (where there is a professorship, for the study of medical jurisprudence), we have no publication of any note, although there are several essays, on particular subjects relating to medical jurisprudence, of considerable value. Amongst the foremost is to be reckoned the Paper of Dr. W. Hunter, on the uncertainty of the signs of murder in bastard children.

We shall conclude our remarks on this subject, with a concise enumeration of the subjects embraced by the science of medical jurisprudence, which we shall notice in the order in which they are treated of in the work of M. Foderé, which, though very prolix, and written without either great professional skill or talent, contains

much curious information on the science, as well as the opinions of most of the preceding writers on the subjects discussed.

The *physical qualities* of man form one of the first and most important subjects of inquiry. According to the laws of all civilized nations, there are certain fixed epochs when reason is to be considered as sufficiently developed for the exercise of certain acts; such as the dominion over property—union of sexes—holding of offices, &c. Majority is to be considered a civil institution, varying in different nations and climates. In the debates on the code Napoleon, no point was more discussed than, whether the period of majority should be fixed at twenty-one or twenty-five; but the former was determined on, except in the case of power to contract marriage, and the discharge of some particular functions. Many cases may arise, and have arisen in this country, in which the age of a party is only to be ascertained by presumption, and it is obvious that the opinion of medical men, on this subject, must have considerable weight. A considerable portion of the first volume of M. Foderé's work is taken up in discussing the physical powers of man, at different ages, as far as regards his legal capacities—the commission of crime, and infliction of injury. The *Médecine Légale* of M. Foderé contains a very detailed commentary on the code Napoleon, which, like many other codes, attempts to establish a scale of the physical powers of man, by which their faculties and incapacities are to be ascertained. Zacchias, one of the most sensible writers who have considered this subject, which, it seems, has (fruitlessly enough, in our opinion) occupied the attention of many jurists and medical writers, admits, that the legal period of age must arise from arbitrary presumption, rather than from any rules resulting from observation of nature, whose variations are infinite.

Many important points arise on the question when the period of gestation ceases: from forty-five to fifty is the ordinary time, though there are exceptions. This point was much canvassed in the Douglas cause. Haller, speaking upon this subject, mentions many women who have borne long after fifty, and who, it may be said, experienced a sort of second youth—have borne, as he states, up to seventy. The English law admits of no presumption, as to the time when a woman ceases to have children, though this enters into most other codes. In England, property, which reverts to the parents, in default of issue, is frequently tied up till after their death, though the moral probability of their having issue may long have ceased. Many curious points seem to have arisen, in France and other countries, with respect to identity; and the subject, in all the treatises, is noticed at considerable length.

The next point is, the relative and absolute duration of life. In case of absence, the English law admits of great latitude; and as each particular instance is determined by a jury, there is very little certainty as yet established; great practical convenience, however, would result from fixed rules on this subject. The relative mortality of the sexes is also considered at length by M. Foderé.

The presumption of survivorship, amongst persons perishing by the same mischance, as shipwreck, suffocation, &c. When no positive evidence can be procured, as to the exact periods of their death, is also another point of which the foreign jurists have written much, but respecting which we have no positive rules in this country. It frequently becomes a question of considerable importance, in the devolution of property, to ascertain which of two persons survived; as parent or child, testator or legatee, &c. The laws of several nations have admitted of arguments, drawn from the relative supposed physical powers of the parties to sustain life, such as are to be inferred from the difference of age, sex, &c.

In imitation of the civil law-codes, the code Napoleon has attempted to lay down particular rules for the devolution of property, in cases of this nature: we extract the following passages:—
 ‘Persons dying, who are the legal representatives to each other, without it being known which died first, the presumption of survivorship is to be determined by the circumstances of the case; and in default thereof, by the strength, age, and sex of the parties. If those who shall so die together shall be both under sixteen, then the *eldest* shall be presumed to have survived: if they were all above sixty, then the *youngest* shall be presumed to have survived; if some under fifteen, and others above sixty, then the first shall be presumed to have survived; if all are above fifteen, and under sixty, then the male is presumed to have survived, if the ages are equal, or the difference does not exceed a year; if they were of the same sex, then the presumption of survivorship, according to the order of nature, is to be adopted, and the younger is supposed to have survived the elder.’ In this there is an odd mixture of arbitrary rules, and an attempt at reaching the probable truth, by a comparative estimate of the physical powers of man; besides, many objections might be made to the above rules, as far as they attempt to regulate, *on principle*, the doctrine of presumptions, we conceive that the simplest law, and the one that would most probably come nearest to natural justice, would be to enact, that in all cases, the order of nature should be presumed to have taken place, and therefore, if father and child died, whatever their probable physical powers, the child should, as in the course of nature, be considered as having survived the father; and so in all cases of succession. The English law, on this subject, is entirely defective, and although there have been questions, in which it was necessary to decide which was the survivor, in the absence of all but presumptive evidence, it does not appear that any decision was ever made, or that any principle of law was admitted, either original, or as adopted from the civil code; whereas, if some fixed rule were adopted, parties at least would not be ignorant of the nature of their rights. In a cause lately before the Court of Chancery, which was the case of a legatee and testator being shipwrecked in the same ship, it was sent by the master of the rolls, to be tried by a jury *which survived*, though he admitted there was a *total absence of all evidence*, on which they could found their verdict; whereas, had some princi-

ple, with regard to legatees and testators dying, been adopted, no question could have arisen. Notwithstanding the manifest fallacy of all reasoning tending to prove who was the survivor, from the relative physical faculties of the deceased, it seems to have been a frequent subject of speculation amongst the writers on medical jurisprudence; and a very considerable part of the second volume of Foderé's work is devoted to the consideration of the modes of ascertaining the probable survivor, in cases of death, by shipwreck, fire, cold, suffocation, &c.

The consideration and study of the different defects of the mind, form an important branch of the study of medical jurisprudence. Pinel has divided the diseases of the mind into four classes; *mania*, or general delirium; *melancholia*, or exclusive delirium; *dementia*, or obliteration of thought, and *idiotism*, or abolition of the intellectual faculties. But the diseases of the mind are so varied, that it is difficult with certainty to class symptoms, admitting of such, infinite variety. However, questions, at once involving life and property, are frequently dependent on the judgment and the evidence of the practitioner. From insanity are to be distinguished hysterical affections, the effects of depraved instincts, jealousy, and inebriety, excesses arising from sudden accessions of peculiar passions of the mind, and temporary alienations of reason, arising from disease. In considering the faculties of man, many curious questions arise on the moral and physical powers of those who are born deaf and dumb, as to their capacity of performing the different functions of life, and how far they are amenable to punishment for the commission of crimes. In this country, these are questions on which a jury alone decide. Another question, in which the testimony of medical men is of considerable importance, is the consideration how far persons, affected by disease, executing a will, are to be considered in a situation to judge of the propriety of the act executed by them.

Of Marriage.—Few, if any, questions are now likely to arise in England, relating to the *time* and *capacity* of parties to marry. The subject of marriage involves that of *impotence*, which may be divided into absolute and perpetual, relative and accidental, or temporary, curable, and incurable.

Pregnancy.—No one part of legal medicine involves so many important questions, as *conception* and *childbirth*; and none are more entangled with difficulties. These points, from their importance, call for the greatest care and circumspection. The signs of conception are divided into rational, particular, and sensible; and notwithstanding the advancement of science, the knowledge both of the one and the other of these signs, is sometimes involved in great difficulty, and frequent errors occur, in the judgment of the most experienced practitioners, even when women have no motive for concealment. The question of superfetation has given rise to much learned discussion: M. Foderé sides with Buffon, Haller, and the other advocates for it—and thinks it is of rare occurrence,

but not impossible. A case of a woman who had twins, one white and the other black, is mentioned by Buffon.

The symptoms of delivery, and how far they are to be distinguished from all other uterine excretions, form another important topic; as also the period of time after delivery, the symptoms may be ascertained with certainty. The capacity of women in labour to render proper assistance to the fœtus, so as to preserve life. The determining whether the fœtus died before or after delivery—upon this point much difference of opinion exists, and it is deserving of considerable attention, in order to enable the practitioner to do justice, in giving his opinion.

Utero-gestation.—The next object of discussion is the period of utero-gestation. In all other animals, the period of utero-gestation is very constant. Haller states, that the time of going with young is very regular in animals, but that it is not so regular in women. He gives references, by which we read of a woman going ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, and even fourteen months. Hippocrates says, that 'he can allow the possibility of a child being born at ten months, but not later.' The former system of France allowed ten months. By the code Napoleon, the legitimacy of a child, born three hundred days after the dissolution of the marriage, may be questioned.

Dr. Clarke, in his lectures, published under the title of London Practice of Midwifery, treats the possibility of the periods extending beyond the forty weeks with ridicule, though contrary to the opinion of many very distinguished practitioners; and indeed, as some have conceived, contrary to reason; for as the fœtus receives its nourishment from the mother, the probability is, that any very material alteration in her constitution may cause the retardation of the maturity of the infant. Besides, the fact of irregularity, in the time of utero-gestation, has been satisfactorily established, in the case of animals, when no motive for prejudice or concealment can arise. With regard to the legitimacy of children born in wedlock, only two reasons are allowed against the legitimacy of the child by the code Napoleon; viz. absence of the husband, or his being affected by some disease, by which it is to be inferred it is impossible he should be the father of the child. Non-access is the only ground of disputing the legitimacy in England; but the rule of evidence, in this respect, has been of late very materially altered, by the opinions of the judges in the Banbury peerage, who have, it is conceived, introduced an *anomalous* division respecting the evidence of access, dividing it into *access* and *generative access*; so that if this distinction be hereafter recognized, much uncertainty may be introduced respecting the title and succession to property, and a new and difficult subject will demand the attention of the medical student.

In discussing the time when the fœtus may be supposed to be perfect, the faculty of Leipsic, with great complaisance, determined that a child, born five months and eight days after the return of the husband, might be considered as legitimate, and that children

at five months were often perfect and healthy. *Valentini*, who reports this decision, is also gallant enough to concur in it.

By the English laws, an husband is entitled to a life interest in the estate of his wife, if he have a child born alive; and the expression of the old law is, if the child should be heard to cry. Some cases, where children have been born alive, but have not uttered any cry, though they have breathed for a continued period, have caused much learned discussion; and a case in 1806, in the Exchequer (where the lips of an infant had moved after birth, but no cry was heard), gave rise to much curious evidence, particularly by Dr. Denman, who was of opinion, that the motion of the lips, immediately after birth, was not a decisive proof of the presence of the vital principle, and distinguished between *uterine* and *exterior* life, the latter being called into action by the operation of the air on the lungs. Each case of this nature, in England, is determined by a jury, on its particular circumstances: according to the civil code, *idem est non nasci, et non posse vivere*.

Till the relaxation of the severity of the laws in this country, relating to infanticide, many unfortunate mothers suffered death for crimes they never committed. Prejudice on the part of the juries, and ignorance on that of the practitioners seem to have conspired to destroy the wretched mother. Dr. William Hunter, in his able paper on infanticide, was one of the first who had the credit of turning the public attention to this subject. No one has written more eloquently in favour of the female character; and from the opportunities of observation, which his extensive practice afforded him, there is no one whose opinion is entitled to higher respect. Even, now, however, it may be doubted, whether there are not some who suffer unjustly, when the incapacity of the mother to assist her infant in a concealed delivery, the probable accidents arising from position, fainting, and delirium, are considered: the horror excited by the idea of a mother's murdering her offspring, may still prevent mankind from judging of the case of the infanticide with impartiality; added to this, the natural appearances have not unfrequently been attributed to violence; and a case has been noticed as having occurred a few years ago, where the sutures and fontenelle were mistaken by an ignorant practitioner, for fractures of the skull. That to form an opinion, which is to decide the fate of a fellow being, on a subject so difficult, and presenting so extensive a field for observation, requires the narrowest scrutiny and attention, need not be noticed; and the probable improvements in our skill respecting these matters, may be easily imagined, when it is considered, how short time since, the lungs, swimming in water, was considered as decisive evidence, that the fœtus had inspired air, and which is now admitted to afford, at best, but a very uncertain criterion of the existence of extra-uterine vitality.

The cases of monstrous-births have seldom* given rise to legal discussion in this country, though the works of foreign writers abound with descriptions of them.

The next class of cases which occur, are, the appearances of death in bodies, and whether the death was natural or violent, as in the case of strangulation, suffocation, drowning, &c. from blows and wounds, &c. and the determining whether particular wounds are to be considered as mortal; after these, come rape, and feigned diseases, the most frequent of which are, epilepsy, insanity, ulcers, and blindness, &c.

Poisons.—We now come to that part which relates to poisons, which have been treated of by M. Orfila, in the work before noticed, and which is one of the most material and extensive subjects of Medical Jurisprudence. The first part of this work contains the particular history of the different poisonous substances considered under their relations with chemistry, physiology, pathology, and Medical Jurisprudence. The history of each poison, is comprised in different paragraphs: comprehending the explanation of its chemical properties, and external characters; its physiological action, determining the effects of poisonous substances, when administered in doses capable of producing accident, with the results of experiments; the general symptoms; the lesion of texture produced, comprehending the nature of the alterations produced by the poison, the application of the facts in the preceding parts to Medical Jurisprudence; with the different courses to be pursued by the practitioner in cases of poison; lastly, the treatment of poisoning, and the consideration as to whether any thing exists in each case possessing the properties of an antidote.

The second part comprehends all that relates to poisoning generally considered, with the symptoms which distinguish acute poisoning, from diseases, such as cholera morbus, &c. explaining the variations of symptoms, the mode of ascertaining the nature of the poison, the history of slow poisons, with the diagnosis, the examinations of dead bodies of persons poisoned, and the researches proper for establishing a distinction between sudden deaths produced by a natural cause, and those which are the result of the agency of poisons, and a comparison of the lesions of texture exhibited by the dead bodies, under these two circumstances, which are altogether different; and the work concludes with directions for the preparation of tests noticed in the preceding parts. To compose a work containing such extensive and important subjects, it was necessary to institute a numerous series of experiments and researches, many extremely difficult; and we think this has been done with considerable success by the author. The physical characters and chemical properties of each poison, with the appearance it presents when exposed to the action of the different tests; and the difference which the poison, when mixed with different alimentary substances, presents with the same tests, are distinctly shown; together with the modification produced by the admixture of the saliva, gastric juice, &c.

M. Orfila treats of the different poisons according to the classification of M. Fodéré, as the most rational and conformable to the ideas of physiology.

Class 1. Corrosive poisons.—So called because they irritate and corrode the texture of the parts with which they come in contact. Their action is in general more formidable than other poisons. All the acids, alkalies, and most of the metallic preparations come under this class. There are fifteen species, noticed by M. Orfila, viz. preparations of mercury, arsenic, antimony, copper, tin, zinc, silver, gold, bismuth, the concentrated acids, caustic alkalies, the caustic alkaline earths, muriate and carbonate of barytes, glass, and enamel in powder and cantharides.

Whenever the smallest quantity of any of these bodies is administered internally, various changes occur either momentary or durable; exciting the brain or heart; or acting as sedatives; increasing or diminishing the customary secretions. Given in larger doses, the poison is absorbed, carrying in some instances its fatal action to the brain and other organs. In certain cases it corrodes the membranes of the stomach, which acts by sympathy on other organs, without absorption taking place. The general symptoms produced by these corrosive substances depend upon the lesions of the alimentary and nervous system, and of the organs of circulation. The corrosive poisons frequently leave behind traces of their passage over our organs. Inflammation of the first passages, contractions of the intestinal canal, gangrene, sphacelus, and perforation of the parts constitute the first character of these lesions, and the mucous coat easily detaches itself from the muscular, and the action is frequently extended to the other visera, although these characters are sometimes wanting, and the dead body exhibits no alterations. Various modes have been adopted at different times to counteract the effect of poison, and many serious errors have arisen from practitioners mistaking the results of chemical operations: and the substances administered for the purpose of decomposing the poisons, have exerted no action whatever upon them in the stomach; and even when the decomposition has been effected, the new compound has been endued with active poisonous qualities. ‘The evacuant, antiphlogistic, and antispasmodic method, appears to us,’ observes M. Orfila, ‘to merit the preference, for, without exposing the patient to the danger which a chemical decomposition might subject him, it offers the double advantage of getting rid of the poison by simple means, and re-establishing the faculties at the same time.’

In this class of poisons, cases arising from the ingestion of corrosive sublimate, verdigris, arsenious acid, nitric, and sulphuric acid, are most frequent. In France, where the sale of poison is restrained by law,* the most common poisons taken for the purpose of committing suicide, are, the nitric acid of commerce, and a mixture of concentrated sulphuric acid and indigo, used in dyeing.

* The frequent occurrences noticed in the papers, of fatal mistakes, from neglect and ignorance of the apprentices of the retailers of drugs, point out the necessity of some legislative directions, as to the sale of dangerous substances, accompanied by severe penalties, in cases of neglect or ignorance.

Of all the mineral poisons, the effects of the nitric acid seems most terrific; it acts with great rapidity on the animal economy, producing symptoms almost constantly succeeded by death. In cases of poisoning by these two acids, in addition to mucilaginous drinks and vomits as remedies, M. Orfila suggests the administering magnesia suspended in mucilage. Frequent mischief has lately occurred in this country, from the accidental ingestion of the oxalic acid. This is sold indiscriminately by druggists, under the name of *acid of sugar*, for various domestic purposes, many of whom were, till lately, ignorant of its deleterious effect. Nine cases of accidental death are noticed by the editors of the *Medical Repository*, as having occurred within two years and a half; and the number for the last December, contains a Report of the case of a death by oxalic acid; a woman having taken nearly an ounce by mistake for Epsom salts. In a short time after taking it, she complained of pain, vomited up a small quantity of fluid, threw herself on the bed, and expired within a quarter of an hour after swallowing the acid. The body, on dissection three days after death, presented appearances similar to those in other cases by death from concentrated acids: the cuticular coat of the œsophagus peeled off with the slightest touch; the blood vessels of the inner coat of the stomach, appeared as if injected with a carbonaceous substance, and the stomach itself was in some parts so completely perforated, that its contents had escaped into the cavity of the abdomen. The conclusion drawn by Mr. A. T. Thompson, from experiments instituted by him, on the nature of this acid, was, that a mixture of chalk and water, by producing oxalate of lime in the stomach, may be regarded as an antidote, if exhibited very soon after the poison has been taken.

In cases of poisoning by corrosive sublimate, in addition to the general remedies for this class, the administration of albumen is recommended by M. Orfila.

The daily use of utensils of copper, and the facility with which copper combines with oxygen, renders accidental poisoning by preparations of it very common. The seat of the lesions of texture, produced by verdigris, is principally in the digestive canal, and when death takes place a few hours after taking the poison, the mucous lining of the stomach is found to be inflamed, and gangrenous: sometimes the inflammation is communicated to all the coats of these viscera, and sloughs are formed, which are quickly detached, and leave openings through which their contents pass out, and are effused into the cavity of the abdomen. Amongst mineral poisons, there are few which exert so powerful an action as the muriate of barytes, as appears from Mr. Brodie's experiments: no case, however, is detailed, of poisoning on the human frame by the compounds of barytes. Much difference of opinion exists, whether the sharp fragments of glass, &c. which by some are classed as poisons, may be swallowed with impunity. In cases of poison by cantharides, the lesions of texture

of the digestive canal are similar to those of other corrosive poisons, occasionally, however, accompanied by inflammation of the bladder. To the corrosive poisons may be added, Iodine, which, from the experiments of M. Orfila, appears, when introduced into the stomach to the amount of a drachm, in dogs, to produce death. Six grains were taken by M. Orfila, which produced violent evacuations, and a pulse of 125: he recovered the effects by the next day.

Class 2. Astringent poisons,—are so called, because they frequently produce a remarkable constriction of the great intestines, and especially of the colon, and in the end, produce inflammation of the texture of the digestive canal, and frequently exert their action on the nervous system. No medical subject has excited more interest, or given rise to a greater number of monographs, by eminent writers, than the treatment of diseases resulting from the astringent or lead poisons, and for this reason, the mode of cure is best understood, and oftenest followed by success.

The varieties of this poison are, acetate of lead, red oxide, or litharge, carbonate of lead or cerussa, wine sweetened, and water impregnated by lead. All artificers, who use, or are exposed to the action of lead, or its compounds, are often attacked with the most severe cholics, sometimes succeeded by death, from having only handled saturnine preparations, or even from having been placed within the sphere of their emanations. In these cases, the digestive canal exhibits no vestige of inflammation: a contraction of the diameter of the great intestines, particularly of the colon accompanied by severe gripings, is the chief symptom, but no fever takes place, whatever the intensity of the pain. Acetate of lead introduced into the stomach, in small quantities, produces inflammation of different parts of it; and the salts of lead, when injected into the veins, destroy life.

As the sulphates of soda, magnesia, &c. decompose the salts of lead with facility, and a large quantity may be given with impunity, and the metallic sulphate resulting from this decomposition, is insoluble: the sulphate of soda, &c. are therefore recommended by M. Orfila, as the best antidote to the corrosive effects arising from saturnine poisons. The mode of treating the cholic arising from saturnine emanations, is, of course, altogether different.*

Class 3. The name of *acrid poisons* is given to those with a caustic taste, and which, applied to the surface, produce inflammation, usually terminated by suppuration; and which, introduced into the stomach, produce local phenomena, analogous to the corrosive poisons, though some authors have attempted to establish distinctions in the appearance of the lesions of texture on dissection. The action of vegetable and animal poisons on the human frame, being more complex, are more difficult to understand than those of the mineral poisons. The class of acrid poisons is divid-

* For some valuable observations on this subject, see Dr. Pemberton's Treatise on the Diseases of the Abdominal Viscera.

ed into two sections, with reference to their action on the animal economy: the first, highly irritating the membranes, and producing violent inflammation, and a sympathetic action on the brain, which is the principal cause of death; and it does not appear that they become absorbed into the system, or at least, they are so with difficulty. Amongst the chief of these are, the briony root, momordica elaterium, many species of euphorbium,* nitrate of potass, and chlorine: the activity of these poisons, is generally greater when introduced into the stomach, than when applied to wounds. Our limits do not admit of entering into details as to the particular action of each: we shall, however, give the conclusions of M. Orfila, from his experiments with the nitrate of potass. 1. It causes death when vomiting has not taken place, and when taken in doses of two or three drachms. 2. It appears to act immediately on the mucous membrane of the digestive canal, and consequently on the nervous system in the same way as stupifying substances do. 3. It is not absorbed when applied to the cellular membrane, and consequently its effects are in such cases, only local.—The second section of this class comprehends poisons, which, by being absorbed, are taken up by the circulation, and act directly on the brain, at one time stupifying, and at others stimulating to an excess, producing more or less inflammation. Amongst these are the black and white hellebore, aconite, squills, toxicodendron, &c. of which the hellebore offers the most curious effects, causing violent vomitings in a few minutes after its application to a wound, and stupor almost immediately takes place, and death supervenes quicker, even than if the poison had been introduced into the stomach. The white is more active than the black hellebore, and its deleterious parts are those which are soluble in water, consequently more dangerous.

The general mode of treatment in cases of poison by this class, appears to be the antiphlogistic system, rejecting in all cases, acids which have sometimes been proposed, as they constantly increase the irritation.

* A case of death by euphorbium, used by farriers for blisters, has been kindly communicated to us by Mr. Furnival, of Egham. A tea-spoonful was administered by a farrier, in the dark, by mistake for rhubarb. Mr. F. saw the patient about six hours after the ingestion of the poison. He described the sensation on swallowing the poison, to be that of burning heat in the throat and fauces, afterwards communicated to the stomach; incessant vomiting of watery fluid took place almost immediately; the tongue was covered with thick mucus; the pulse very irregular, and at least 150; the patient was in a cold perspiration, and unable to speak intelligibly. An emetic of sulphate of zinc and ipecacuanha was given, and its effects quickened by introducing the probang into the oesophagus, a small quantity of thin black fluid only was discharged; both mucilages and anodynes were given, but almost instantly rejected: he lived nearly three days, and on opening the body, eight hours after death there were found in the stomach, several spots of mortification, the coats of the stomach ruptured on the slightest touch, the spleen very much enlarged, and tore on the smallest force being applied to it; the vessels of the internal coat of the aorta were most beautifully injected with blood, and showed marks of the highest degree of inflammation and vascularity.

Class 4. The Narcotic poisons,—including opium, hyoscyamus, prussic acid, and the vegetable substances containing it. Opium, according to our author, cannot be considered either as coming directly within the class of narcotics, or stimulating poisons, its action being *sui generis*. Animals on having it administered, become first stupified, then exhibit symptoms of considerable excitement, during which they suffer great pain, and violent convulsions supervene, differing considerably from the effects arising from heliobore. The observations on the prussic acid, are interesting. We give shortly the results of M. Orfila's mode of treating this class of poisons. 1. Vegetable acids constantly accelerate death when mixed in the stomach with the poison, as they facilitate the solution of the poison, and consequently its absorption. 2. Acidulated water is useful, when the poison has been rejected. 3. Strong infusion of coffee successfully resisted the effects of narcotic poisons, when administered unremittingly. 4. The decoction of coffee, always less energetic than the infusion. 5. Camphire cannot be considered as an antidote, though beneficial when administered in small doses. 6. Mucilaginous drinks promote the absorption. 7. Bleeding sometimes beneficial.

Class 5. Narcotic-acrid poisons.—This class comprehends the upas, nux vomica, some fungi, alcohol, æther, belladonna, stramonium, tobacco, hemlock, &c. The results of M. Orfila's experiments correspond with those of former writers on those poisons, amongst the most distinguished of whom is Mr. Brodie.

The last class is composed of the *septic poisons*, which produce general weakness, and syncope, without in general altering the intellectual faculties. In this class is sulphuretted hydrogen gas, and the venomous animals whose bite or sting is accompanied by pain or death. Our limits preclude us from noticing the mode of treatment of cases arising from poisoning by these two classes.

The detailed account of the poisons is followed by general observations of the utmost consequence to the science of Medical Jurisprudence: they chiefly consist in the description of spontaneous diseases, which are frequently confounded with cases of poison, as cholera morbus, indigestion, malignant fever, &c. and the affinities of the appearances of these are carefully examined and distinguished from the operations of poison.

That the subject of medical jurisprudence is of the most serious importance, we think it is unnecessary to repeat. We have merely in an hasty sketch, glanced at the points most likely to occur in the practice of medical men; and although of late, some attention seems to have been paid to the subject, still it is obvious that much remains to be done.*

* The editors of the *Analectic Magazine* have selected the foregoing essay on medical jurisprudence from No 5. of professor Brande's *Journal of the Royal Institute*, from a full conviction that the importance of the subject is not fully appreciated either in England or America. The cases of criminal imputation, and the cases

ART. VII.—*Extracts from A Tour through St. Helena.* By Captain John Barnes, *Civil and Military Surveyor in the Hon. Company's service on the Island.* Published in London, 1817.

QUADRUPEDS AND REPTILES.

THE black cattle, by which is meant oxen, cows, &c. &c. are in number about two thousand five hundred (September, 1815). That the supplies of beef to shipping may be efficiently kept up, no farmer can kill for his own consumption without permission from the governor and council;* many of the oxen are large, weighing from eight hundred to eleven hundred pounds alive—the beef is generally of very excellent quality.

The cattle are principally of English breed; some from Madras and China have also been introduced, but are not in equal estimation: others imported from the Cape of Good Hope and from Benguela did not succeed; one cause may be, that they were too large and unwieldy for the acclivities of the pasture lands.

of hiership and descent, wherein medical is complicated with legal knowledge, are not only numerous, but of the very highest importance with regard to life, liberty, and property. Yet there are but three or four tracts at the utmost, and those of a very flimsy character, that have issued from the English press in relation to medical jurisprudence. The prolix folio of Zanchius (*Questiones medico-legales*) is obsolete. The continent of Europe, meanwhile, abounds in valuable and scientific knowledge on this subject, while in this country it is hardly known at all as a question worth discussing, except from the late proposals of Dr. Caldwell to lecture upon it.

In the English and American courts of justice, the maxim is adopted, *cuius in sua arte credendum est*; hence the practice of introducing as witnesses, persons of technical knowledge, *Experts*. But what person has a right to be considered as an expert, who has not paid attention to the connection between medicine and jurisprudence as a particular branch of study? What medical gentleman introduced as a witness on the occasion (for instance) of a charge of poisoning, can appear with advantage, who is not well and accurately versed in the chemical facts and doctrines of the present day? Suppose a physician so introduced into court, a counsel would have a right to interrogate him, not merely as to the symptoms that would lead to the inference of poison, but as to all the modes of ascertaining the presence of poisons—as to all the doctrine of tests and re-agents, chemical and galvanical—as to the experiments and the rationale of them instituted by the witness or others, for the purpose of throwing light on the question before the court. All this a court has a right to expect that a physician should know; and if he knows it not, his testimony on such an examination would lose influence; and he himself would certainly lose character.

It is anxiously to be wished, therefore, that the treatises here reviewed were translated, or perhaps abridged; that want of skill in this branch of knowledge should not be imputed as an *opprobrium medicorum*.

* The good joke of a vote of the governor and council being necessary for the slaughter of an ox, amounts to a regulation adapting a limited supply to an unlimited demand, and this is all.

' Beef sells at sixpence half-penny per pound when living, or one shilling and three-pence per pound slaughtered.

' There are many horses upon the island, but few good ones. Arabian males, with some from the Cape of Good Hope and England, have been brought here, but without much advantage. Perhaps the colts are in general taken up too young, their bones not sufficiently set, nor a due proportion of strength acquired to undergo the fatigue of travelling the steep and unequal roads, they are prematurely worn out. Persons keeping horses pay an annual tax of eight shillings for each.

' The island sheep are small, but make very good mutton: they weigh from twenty to thirty pounds, dead. There are also fine sheep of the Bengal and Merino breed, which thrive well—the Merino are but lately introduced. Cape sheep are imported for immediate consumption.

' Formerly, numbers of sheep were allowed to pasture, unattended, upon the honourable Company's waste lands, thence called common sheep: the fact is, they wandered all over the island, destroying young trees, damaging gardens, plantations, &c., especially by night, being in this respect more troublesome than the goats; these take up their abodes in the hollows of the rocks from sun-set to sun-rise, while the former roam about continually. Both have been recently exterminated by order of the lords proprietors, excepting a few goats permitted to be kept under similar regulations with tame flocks of sheep—a measure which cannot fail to produce beneficial consequences.

' A great many hogs are raised, and the flesh (of those reared in the country especially) is excellent food: equal to beef or veal, and superior to Cape mutton at least.

' Until within the last twenty-five or thirty years, farmers were accustomed to cure their pork with salt gathered from the shores, thus providing one of the chief articles of subsistence, nearly sufficient for their consumption: this good practice has ceased, and, it may in truth be stated, that the facility and cheapness of obtaining salt provisions from the Company's stores, with which privilege they were indulged from 1772 until 1809, has been by degrees the principal cause of this neglect; this resource, however, being now cut off, they may revert to the custom of supplying themselves in the independent and laudable way of their forefathers.

' Asses.—Of this patient and useful animal there were few until lately, and those seldom employed: attention has been paid to augment their number, and the services they render make it an object to procure a greater increase.

' Mules are scarce: it is difficult and expensive to procure them, being brought from the coast of South America—they are excellently adapted to the hills of Saint Helena.

' Dogs* abounded until a wise regulation effected a diminution of them: every proprietor of a dog, or dogs, is annually taxed for each in an increased proportion to the number he keeps; and no dog is permitted to live unless he wears a collar with his owner's name engraven on it. They are of the Newfoundland, spaniel, terrier, and water-dog species, with some others of inferior and useless kinds.

* No instance of canine madness has ever occurred here.

‘There are no hares, but many rabbits, which are often killed by wild cats, in their predatory excursions: these are of the same species with the domestic cat, harbouring in the rocks, and wandering about by night in quest of prey—they carry off great numbers of poultry.

‘The houses both in town and the country, and the gardens, plantations, &c., are beset with multitudes of rats and mice; every means has been attempted to destroy them, but no apparent diminution of their thousands has been effected; the damage they do, particularly the rats, is almost incredible. One of the greatest benefits this island could experience, would be the extirpation of these vermin.

‘Of insects, reptiles, &c., none are venomous but the scorpion and centipede: their stings occasion considerable pain and inflammation of the wounded part, but seldom attended with more unpleasant effects. The remedy in general use is, to bruise the animal to pieces and apply it as a plaister, or to wash the place affected with spirits in which some of them are kept. This treatment speedily accomplishes a cure.

‘The scorpion is small: the scolopendræ are from five to eight inches in length.

‘*Gryllus, domesticus et campestris*, the house and field cricket appear to be identified in species, only that the former is of a pale, yellow, brown cast, and the latter more decidedly brown.

‘A species of the beetle, and two of the grasshopper, abound.

‘The cattle-fly, probably *œstrus tarandi*, is the pest of oxen: when it inflicts its sting, the poor animal runs about in violent speed, careless of precipices, or any other danger; large worms are taken from under the hides, generated from the egg of this insect. Horses suffer also in like manner from their attacks: and instances have been known of persons stung by them, from whose flesh similar worms have been extracted.

‘Innumerable ants are in every dry situation; the same with the common brown ant of England: they traverse the trunks and branches of trees in myriads, for the saccharine substance which a species of pucceron affords. There are no white ants so destructive in India.

‘A few lizards occasionally appear about houses, &c.—small and quite harmless.

‘There are neither toads nor frogs.

‘Butterflies and moths in great variety, and exceedingly beautiful, are common.

‘There are many sorts of spiders, some very large, and of colours elegantly diversified.

‘The snail and slug are often found in gardens, and on the young plants in the upper lands.

‘Grubs, produced most probably from moths’ eggs, afterwards transformed into winged insects of the same description, are of great mischief in the gardens, destroying numbers of young plants, the tender stems of which they bite asunder, close to the surface of the earth.

‘Mosquitoes are in swarms: the continual humming noise they make (which is astonishingly loud for so minute a fly) is nearly as annoying as their bite: in warm weather, wherever there happens to be any stagnant water they are innumerable, both in a winged state, and not yet furnished with alæ, swimming about like tad-poles. There is another kind not so numerous, called the day mosquito, of the same size, but whose sting is yet more severe; a degree of inflammation instantly succeeds it, at-

tended with intolerable itching, and virulent sores have been the consequence of scratching these places. This insect is of a dark brown colour, its body, legs, and wings, spotted with white.

'The dragon-fly is from one to three inches in length: the colours red, green, and azure blue, of wonderful brilliance.

'Cock-roaches are very large, numerous, and annoying, paying their unceremonious and disgusting visits in every apartment of the house.

'It is impossible to describe the ravages occasioned by caterpillars: extensive plantations of esculents, verdant and flourishing in the evening, present, too often, a leafless and distressing appearance when the morning calls the gardener to his accustomed employ; they are inconceivably numerous, and their visitations are frequently as sudden as those of locusts in other countries. The energy and expectations of the farmer receive in no way a more vexatious check, than from these destructive insects. Their departure in a body is sometimes as sudden as their arrival.'

ORNITHOLOGY.

'It appears from the best information which can now be obtained, that when Saint Helena was discovered it had no other birds than sea fowls, of the same species with those which now frequent the coast.

'These are the frigate pelican, or man of war, *pelicanus aquilus*: it is a large, dark-coloured bird, in length from three to four feet, and ten to fourteen feet in width, from the extremities of the wings: it soars to a great height; from which it darts with wonderful rapidity to seize its prey—usually the flying-fish.

'The tropic bird, *phaeton etherens*: the bill is red, the eyes surrounded with black, a few of the larger quill feathers near their ends are black, tipped with white; all the rest of the bird is white, except the back, which is variegated with curved lines of black. The legs and feet are of a vermilion red; the toes webbed; the tail consists of two long, straight, narrow, white feathers.

'There are also the white-bird, black-bird, and egg-bird: they are about the size of a full-grown pigeon, and in abundance. The eggs of the latter, which are deposited in their nests on the islets and rocks round the coast, are very good: the skin of the white bird is in curious contrast to its plumage, which is uniformly and delicately white, and that as entirely black. These birds are sometimes brought to table, but not much liked, on account of their fishy taste.

'To these may be added, the noddy, *sterna stolidus*; petrel, *procellaria capensis*; and the grenadier gross-beak, *loxia orix*, locally called wire-bird.

'The following are the land birds, all of which have been gradually introduced: the varieties are more valuable than numerous, most of them being articles of food.

'Peacock, brought from Bombay in 1788: it is a magnificent bird, larger than the turkey: the female deposits her eggs in some secret place to prevent the male destroying them. They are wild.

'Pheasants.—A species from China; the plumage of peculiar beauty: by night they roost on the alpine trees, and by day descend into the brakes and bushes of the lower pastures; they do potatoe crops considerable damage, by raking them out of the earth.

'Partridge.—Said to be from France: they prefer the rocky and barren parts of the island; their plumage is cinereous, the chin white, with

a black band—the bills and legs blood-red. This bird is properly the only game, the pheasants being reserved for hospitalities to strangers; and a proper delicacy to the inhabitants has generally disposed the governor to decline complying with the wish for a sport, from which the gentlemen of the island are excluded.

‘Domestic poultry are plentiful, and all good in their kinds, but much too dear; large supplies of them are furnished to shipping.

‘Guinea-fowls, not numerous: the common pigeons are plentiful.

‘The other land birds are the dove, Java sparrow, amaduvade, and Canary, the two last as numerous as sparrows in England.’

On the subject of *ichthyology*, captain Barnes gives us a curious account of the sea-lion. Could some of our excessively plethoric citizens disencumber themselves of their superfluous fat as easily as this animal does of his, we should soon have some of our useless shipping chartered for Napoleon's rock. Our author quotes the words of Mr. Thomas Leech.

“There is also here the manatee, commonly called the sea-cow, though it certainly is the sea-lion, mentioned by lord Anson, in his *Voyage round the World*: this creature comes on shore to disencumber itself of its fat, or blubber, which it does by cutting its skin against the rocks, from whence issues a great quantity of oil; and after it has rid itself of its burden, it retires to the sea again. It will lay four, five, or more days on shore, if not disturbed, but on the least disturbance makes towards the sea: it has a large head and neck, like that of a bull, with large teeth and whiskers, rather resembling horn than hair; (the common people affirm, that wearing these, ring fashion, is a specific against the cramp.) In smelling, it moves its nose like a dog: it has two short paws, or feet, not much unlike those of a dog, extremely strong, and the claws are also not much different; the tail part is divided into a kind of fin, to assist it in swimming. The eyelids of this creature are very remarkable: the undermost is a thin, transparent skin, which falls down over the eye, while the eye itself remains entirely open; this, I imagine, Nature has provided for the security of the creature's eye, while under water, as it can certainly see through it: when it sleeps on shore, both the eyelids of each eye are shut. The method of taking it is, by shooting it pear the eye, or with a hatchet to split its head open; for, if you fire twenty or more balls at its body, they will take little or no effect, on account of the thickness of its fat.”

The island of St. Helena has been frequently represented as uncommonly barren and dry; but captain Barnes informs us, that it contains five hundred species of plants; that rains are not unfrequent; that fields of potatoes have been suffered to rot in the ground, because the market price would not defray the expense of digging them; and that on this little speck of the ocean, ‘there are certainly several thousand acres of excellent land, now lying waste, which might, with great facility and advantage, be cultivated.’ ‘Upon most, if not all of the estates and farms, are plantations of young trees, valuable in their kind, and rapidly advancing in their growth.’ The greatest pests of the island are mice, blackberry bushes, and Napoleon.

ART. VIII.—*Persian Anthology*.—From the Asiatic Journal.

MR. EDITOR,

IN the last Edinburgh Review, p. 243, on the article of Dugald Stewart's Introduction to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, is the following note:

'At the conclusion of bishop Taylor's *Liberty of Prophesying* is a Jewish story, told in the manner of a chapter of Genesis, in which God is represented as rebuking Abraham for having driven an idolater out of his tent. This story, the bishop says, is somewhere to be found in the Rabinical books; but till the *original is discovered*, we may ascribe the beauty of the imitation, if not the invention of the incidents, to the bishop himself.

'Dr. Benjamin Franklin gave the same story, with some slight variations, to lord Kaimes, who published it in his *Sketches of the History of Man*.'

About twenty years ago, I sent to the Asiatic Society at Calcutta a paper on the coincidences of the European and oriental classics, ancient and modern, part of which my friend general Kirkpatrick furnished the editor of the *Asiatic Register* with a copy of, in which it appeared; but what I now send you has never been in print. In Europe we have of late been much amused by stories of Muhammadan intolerance; but it has been by writers, who were either ignorant of the Mussulman tenets, or wilfully misrepresented them. In the Koran we are told that

'Jews, Christians, and Sabians, and indeed whoever believeth in God and the last day, and doeth that which is right, shall have his reward with the Almighty, and no fear shall come upon him, neither needeth he to grieve.' And Sadi, in quoting that passage in one of his sermons, adds—'that any fellow-creature, who believes in God after his own fashion and heart, and thus accomplishes good works, may expect a favourable reception and final sentence on the last day, notwithstanding his failure in ritual duty; that there is salvation for a virtuous infidel, but none for a vicious believer.' He moreover adds—'Many a believer is arrayed in vain glory, and many an infidel wears the garb of humility.'

But what finer examples of toleration can I offer than the following two apologues, from the *Bustan of Sadi*?

'A Mogh, or fireworshipper, had secluded himself from the world, and devoted his whole time to the service of an idol. Some years afterwards that professor of a rejected faith happened to fall into distressed circumstances. Confident of relief, he threw himself at the feet of his idol, and lay prostrate and helpless on the floor of its temple, saying, "I am undone: take me, oh! my idol! by the hand: I am afflicted to the soul: have compassion on my body." Oftentimes would he be thus fervent in his devotional duty; for his affairs were not in the train of being settled. But how shall an image forward any man's concern, which cannot drive a fly from settling on its own body? The poor Mogh waxed warm, and added, in his passion, "Oh! slave of error! how long have I worshipped thee to a vain purpose! accomplish for me at once the object of my heart, otherwise I must ask it of Providence, or the Lord God paramount!" That contaminated Mogh still

lay with his face in the dust, now that the pure spirit of the Almighty had complied with his prayer. One of the true faith, whose sincere adoration had been ever clouded with calamity, expressed himself astonished at what had come to pass, and said, "Here is a despicable and obstinate worshipper of the fire, whose mind is still intoxicated with the wine of his temple; his heart full of infidelity, and hand soiled with perfidy; yet has God fulfilled the object of his wish!" This holy man's mind was occupied in trying to resolve this difficulty, when a message from heaven was revealed into the ear of his soul, intimating to him, "This old and perverted sinner often implored his idol, and his prayers were disregarded; but were he to quit the threshold of my tribunal disappointed, then where would be the difference between a dumb and perishable idol, and the Lord God Eternal?" Put your trust, oh! my dearly beloved friends! in Providence, for nothing is more helpless than a stock or a stone idol. It were lamentable, when you might lay your heads on this threshold, if you should come to leave it disappointed of your object.

Sadi's second apologue is as follows:

'I have heard that no son of the road, or traveller, had approached the hospitable abode of that friend of God, Abraham, for a whole week. From the natural goodness of his heart, he could never partake of his morning repast, till some weary stranger had entered his dwelling. He took himself forth, and explored every quarter; he viewed the valley to its uttermost border, and descried from afar a man, solitary as a willow, whose head and beard were whitened with the snow of years. In order to administer comfort, he went up and gave him a hearty welcome, and, after the custom of the generous, thus kindly entreated him, saying "Oh! precious apple of mine eye! be courteously pleased to become my guest!" The old man consented, and getting up, stepped briskly forward; for he well knew the beneficent disposition of Abraham (on whom be God's blessing). The domestic companions of that beloved friend of God seated with reverence the poor old man: orders were issued, and the table spread, and the family took their respective stations around it. When the company began to ask God's blessing before meat, nobody could hear the stranger utter a word. Then did Abraham say to him, "Oh! sage of ancient times! thou seemest not to be holy and devout, as is usual with the aged. Is it not their duty, when they break his bread, to call upon that Providence, who has graciously bestowed it?" The old man replied, "I follow no religious rite, that has not had the sanction of my priest of the fire!" The well-omened prophet was now made aware that this depraved old wretch had been bred a Guebre; as an alien to his faith, he thrust him forth with scorn; for the pure abhor the contamination of the vile. From glorious Omnipotence an angel came down, and in the harshness of rebuke called aloud, "Oh! Abraham, for a century of years I bestowed on him life and food, whom thou hast taken to abominate on an hour's acquaintance; for though he is offering adoration to the fire, why art thou to withhold the hand of toleration from him?"

We are told by oriental writers—for the Persians claim Abraham as one of their forefathers—that the Almighty often communed with him thus, and was pleased to impart to him the secret counsels and purposes of his Providence; whence he was styled the

Khalil Khoda, or beloved friend of God. See Isaiah xli. 8. He was the second son, according to them, of Azar; and had in his youth been educated in the idolatries of his father, who, though descended from the prophets, had followed *the multitude* of those days *to do evil*, and became on *their* account a maker of images in the city of Bamian Balkh. But Abraham, being recalled to the *true faith*, went, while yet a youth, into his father's shop, and breaking the images, ridiculed such as came to buy them; when his father took him for chastisement before Nimrod; who, instead of punishing him, was diverted by his miracles and wit. After this he removed to the eastern border of the Persian empire, and was famed for his love and piety to the deity, and justice and hospitality to his fellow-creatures; for which last purpose he often pitched his tents on the edge of the wilderness, near the city of Haran, that he might, as the above apologue informs us, entertain travellers passing towards that place. Oriental scholars, who are aware of the peculiar and fierce prejudices that the Mussulmans entertained against the Guebres, cannot sufficiently admire the benevolent spirit displayed by Sadi, in these and many of his apoloques, where he has occasion to notice different religious sects; and many *well-meaning Christians* might learn *good manners on this head*, by studying such parts of his works. We may all read, and equally apply the moral of such parables to our own conduct, so as to enable us to set aside all narrow and violent prejudices, and imbibe in their room, proper and liberal notions of tolerance in religious matters, particularly towards such as differ from us perhaps in little else than what is ceremonial; recollecting to this purpose that excellent maxim of our own gospel:—'Forbid him not; for he that is not against us (in the propagation of the knowledge of one only and true God) is on our part.' Were indeed the Socrateses, the Pliny's, the Fenelons, the Addisons, and the Sadis of distant ages and nations thus benevolently to talk over the subject of religion and morality, that spleen of the soul, superstition, might be cured of its gloomy brooding; and that bane of humanity, fanaticism, reduced to sobriety and reason; and the soundness and integrity of our simple, as it is superior, Christian doctrines, might all the sooner gain, what every considerate man among us would wish and hope to see, that ultimate victory over all other faiths. To the avoiding evil inclinations and practices, and to improvement in sentiments and habits of piety and virtue, we cannot be indifferent certainly without being criminal; yet we may assuredly tolerate, without impatience or animosity, the errors, whether of our own dissenting sects of faith, or those of Muhammadans and idolaters, so long as their peculiar tenets are not active in sapping the foundations of our own special belief; and we ought to combat their errors only by reason, argument, and truth, and not as some of us have lately done, by abuse, falsehood, and misrepresentation. If in the course of such discussions the opposite parties should have opportunities of promulgating some errors, that, without this provocation, might have remained within their own narrower sphere, as

this would nevertheless lead to a freer and more open inquiry, so it were the most likely and best means of combatting the obstinate part of them with success, and of converting the reasonable. In our own now extensive settlements in the East Indies (and where can we fix a limit to those settlements, and the liberality of our governments there?) we have readier means of making converts than any other Christian nation; and from the liberality of the British press, abler vindications of the Old and New Testaments have been published in England than in all the world beside. Maracci's translation and refutation of the Koran (Sale's is only a copy of part of it) is an able work; but then he was a papist, and had the worship of images, and other objectionable tenets, to defend, which neither Mussulman nor Hindu could be ever reconciled to. The plain faith and simple doctrine of the gospel, according to the acceptance of our best and ablest divines, may be compared to our system of British government, which required only a thorough and impartial discussion to distinguish the licentiousness, which wild theorists and hot-headed enthusiasts have, at different times, inculcated from true liberty; and a memorable example of this has, in the temporary madness of the French revolution, passed in review before the eyes of mankind, and may deter other governments, for some time, from meddling with their constitutions.

Nihil dictum, quod non dictum prius: there is nothing new under the sun, if we believe our own Scripture, and the reproof given to Abraham in the above apologue of Sadi, is so similar to what Moses is said, by oriental writers, to have received on a like occasion, that I may safely trace him to his original. By the by, it would scarcely be believed, that Parnell borrowed the beautiful story of his hermit through a Risallah or sermon of Sadi from the Koran, which I was first made aware of by proposing to my Munshi, many years ago, to translate it into the Persian language, as a fine specimen of our English apologue. The oriental writers tell us, that:—

‘Karun, (the Korah of our Scriptures, Numb. xiv.) was notorious for his riches and stinginess; and there is a Hadis or tradition of the prophet (Muhammad), that Moses, the cousin of Karun, had the divine permission to punish this wickedness. Accordingly, in the midst of his kindred and wealth, Moses ordered the earth to open and swallow him up. This it did gradually, for he at first sunk no deeper than the knees, then to the waist, after that to the shoulders, and lastly to the chin; and he after each pause called aloud; “have mercy on me, oh! Moses!”—but Moses felt no compassion, and the earth finally swallowed him up. Upon which God appeared to Moses and said;—“thou hadst no mercy “on thy own cousin Karun, notwithstanding he asked thy forgiveness four “sundry times, whereas had he repented and asked me but once, how- “ever iniquitous he had been, I might have compassioned him.”

Yet if Sadi was in this instance a plagiarist, men of no contemptible literature have, among ourselves, made free with his story of Abraham. One indeed restores it to the Jewish Talmud, from which Muhammad had no doubt taken it; for the historical part of his Koran is chiefly borrowed from that, our Scriptures, and the twenty-

one Nosks or canons of Zartasht; and the consciousness of his theft made his immediate followers so savage with the Guebres, Jews, and Christians: Sadi's other debtor for this apologue claimed it as his own, after having amused himself for years by imposing it on his clerical friends as a portion of Scripture. The first is that excellent bishop of Down and Conner, Jeremy Taylor, who, had he needed the lesson himself, lived in an age of calamity of church and state, sufficient to have taught humility to the proudest dignitary among us; and died in 1667.

He says, at the conclusion of a chapter of his *Liberty of Prophecy*:—

‘I end with a story I find in the Jewish books:—“When Abraham sat at the door of his tent, according to his custom, waiting to entertain strangers, he espied an old man, stooping and bearing on his staff, weary with age and travel, coming towards him, who was a hundred years of age. He received him kindly, washed his feet, provided supper, and caused him to sit down; but observing that the old man eat and prayed not, nor begged for a blessing on his meat, he asked him why he did not worship the God of heaven? The old man told him; he worshipped the fire only, and acknowledged no other God: at which answer, Abraham grew so zealously angry, that he thrust the old man out of his tent, and exposed him to all the evils of the night, and an ungarded condition. When the old man was gone, God called to Abraham, and asked him, where the stranger was? He replied, “I thrust him away, because he did not worship thee.” God answered him and said, “I have suffered him these hundred years, although he dishonoured me; could'st thou not endure him for one night, when he gave thee no trouble?” Upon which, saith the story, Abraham fetched him back again, and gave him hospitable entertainment and wise instruction.” The worthy bishop adds:—“Go and do thou likewise, and thy charity shall be rewarded by the God of Abraham!”’

Dr. Franklin's imitation of Sadi's apologue I shall not here quote, as it is to be met with in so many late periodical works.* In his well-known story of the Whistle, the doctor has also copied verbatim another apologue of Sadi's *Bustan* ix. 13; but as that book has not, to my knowledge, been translated into any language of Europe, I cannot fancy through what channel he got them. A comparison may be drawn between all the three apologies of Abraham's intolerance, and notwithstanding its priority of date, and the lameness of my verbal translation, I cannot doubt to which the man of taste will give his preference. In all the three, Abraham is represented as comfortable in his domestic circle, grateful for the benefits of Providence, and hospitable to strangers; but from an ignorant zeal he is also represented as instigated to an act of *intolerance*, which the Deity notices and reproveth. So far the parable is complete, having a beginning, a middle, and an end; and I cannot but admire both the bishop's and doctor's oriental phraseology and happy imitation of the narrative simplicity of the original; but actuated by our Eu-

* The Latin translation from Sadi, by George Gentz (Georgio Gentio) in his *Sebeth Jehudae*, 1689, was published by Mr. Cooper in Dr. Priestley's *Life*.

European taste of amplifying their subject, the bishop proceeds in the detail of bringing the old man back, and the doctor adds to it the particulars of Abraham's punishment; and thus both destroy the unity and integrity of the fable and plot, which together constitute the chief beauty of a real Persian apologue. Many think, that the stories, like the manners of the east, must undergo an ordeal to adapt them to the ideas of modern Europe; but they will find, that the point of the epigram is blunted, and that they are thus refined into a vitiated and spiritless imbecility. The abstraction of modern European philosophy, that fashion of a day, enters too much into all our translations from the Persian language; and the simplicity of sentiment and forcible diction of the original is frittered away; and thus the highly expressive is sacrificed to the neat, the pathetic to the brilliant, the strong to the frivolous, and the energetic to the clear.

A writer in narrating a story, expresses either in the sentiments of another man, or in his own: the first mode is the simple narrative, and that generally adopted in Europe; the second the dramatic, which is most consistent with the oriental idiom, and particularly with that of the Persian language. With his usual fine taste, Addison caught the real oriental knack of telling a story, and has often availed himself of it in giving an English dress to the many oriental parables with which he has decorated the pages of the *Spectator*; and I shall finish with quoting two of his stories, and giving literal translations of them out of Sadi's works, from which he drew them, through that best of oriental travellers, sir John Chardin; and would it be believed, that though he travelled under the patronage of our Charles the II^d., we have not to this date a complete translation of his travels into English, but a valuable edition of the original was lately published in France.

Sadi in his *Risallah* ii. Sermon 4, for like our Saviour he introduces many of his most beautiful apologues as parables; in his theological discourses, tells us that:

‘One day Ibrahim Adham, let the glory of God encircle his majestic state, had seated himself in the porch of his palace with all his retinue standing around him in attendance; when, behold! a poor Dervise with a patched cloak about his shoulders, a scrip in one hand, and a pilgrim's staff in the other, presented himself before him, and was making his way into the inner hall of the palace. The servants called to him and said, “Oh! reverend sir! where are you going?” He replied, “I am going into this public inn.” The servants said; “this is the palace of the king of Balkh.” Ibrahim commanded that they would bring him forward: he now said; “Oh! Dervise! this is my palace, and no inn.” The Dervise asked him, saying; “Oh! Ibrahim, whose house was this originally?” He replied; “it was the house of my grandfather.” The Dervise said, “when he departed this life, whose house was it?” He replied; “it was my father's:” he said; “and when thy father also died, “whose house did it become?” he replied; “it became mine:” he said; “and when thou departest, to whom will it belong?” he replied; “it will then belong to the prince my son!” Then did the Dervise say, “Oh! Ibrahim! a house, which one man is after this manner entering and

"another quitting, may be an inn, but is the palace or fixt habitation of "no man!"

In No. 289 of the Spectator may be seen Addison's admirable imitation of this parable.

One other apologue is that of Bustan iv. 2. containing in five columns of the original, that most poetical and beautiful sentiment of humility, which the man of classical taste has only to read and admire, and no longer be led astray by the *vulgar* European notion, that the language of Persian poetry is not something better than *verbiage*! Addison's elegant imitation may be read in No. 293 Spectator:—

'A solitary drop of water, as it was falling from a cloud, blushed when it saw the huge extent of the sea; saying—"Where the ocean exists, what place is left for me to occupy, if that immense body of water be present, my God! what an inconsiderable atom of matter am I?" While it was after this manner reviewing itself with an eye of humility, an oyster took it into the bosom of its shell, and nourished it with its whole soul: the revolution of fortune raised it into an exalted station, for it ripened into a precious pearl, and became the chief jewel of the imperial diadem of Persia: it rose into dignified eminence, because its walk was humble, and knocked at the gate of annihilation, till it was ushered into an illustrious existence.'

ART. IX.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, and Politics.*

THE EDINBURGH MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

THE first number of this publication, came out on the first day of April, in the present year. The plan on which it is conducted, seems much like that of other magazines; consisting, as to the larger portion in bulk, of original communications, selected essays, and poetry: then follows a review of periodical works: notice of new publications: literary and scientific news: a political register of British and foreign affairs: a chronicle: monthly reports of commerce and agriculture: and lastly, an account of marriages and deaths.

The original communications are interesting, as we might expect in the commencing number of such a work. So are the selections under the head of "Antiquarian Repertory," particularly to readers in North Britain. There are two titles comprised in the present work, which seem to characterise it; that is, a review of *Periodical Works*, and a more full account of foreign politics and intelligence, than is customary in publications of this kind. But we were somewhat surprised in looking over the review of periodical publications, to find none of the numerous periodical pamphlets furnished by the press of Great Britain, deemed worthy of observation but the *Edinburgh* and the *Quarterly Reviews*; to the analysis of whose contents, about five pages of close print are dedicated in the present magazine. This is an article that to many readers will be acceptable, and from the opposite political character of these two publications, we may augur, that the editors of the Edinburgh Magazine mean to take neutral ground with respect to the politics of the day. The Edinburgh Review, conducted by Mr. Jeffries, as our readers well know, is favourable to the politics of that party which Mr. Burke

termed the *new whigs*, in opposition to the ancient whig aristocracy of the great, titular, landed proprietors of the kingdom, whose influence rested on long descent and wealth; the Percys, the Howards, the Portlands, the Devonshires, &c. But long descent and great wealth, are very seldom accompanied by great talent or acquirement; and still less by the persevering industry necessary to success in politics, as well as in every other pursuit. Hence, the opposition-aristocracy of the English nobility, from the close of the American war to the prevalence of the French revolution, were fain to connect themselves politically with the *novi homines*—the new whigs—the men of no rank, no fortune, but adventurous talent, and active acquirement, of which phalanx Mr. Fox was the leader. From this party, Mr. Burke, who belonged to it originally, was induced to secede. The party to whom his talents were necessary, took care to apply ‘persuasion in a tangible shape,’ and with great success. But Mr. Burke’s opposition to his old friends, was too sudden and too virulent; and notwithstanding the beauty of his language, and the prophetic force of many of his observations, he made little impression upon the public: as a speaker, his prolixity wearied, and his virulence disgusted his auditors—as a writer, he had too much pomp of expression, and too little arrangement of argument: all were amused, none were converted: with literary men he was, and will be, regarded as the most eloquent of British authors; but with the nation at large, he settled down under the character given by Sallust, *satis eloquentia, sapientia parum*. The new whig principles, bequeathed by Mr. Fox, are those of the present lord Grey, and of lord Holland’s politico-literary coterie; and are countenanced throughout, by the political character assumed in the Edinburgh Review.

The mantle of Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Burke, like that of Mr. Fox, has descended to no one. They have followers, *impari passu*, but they have none capable of taking their respective places in the political warfare.

The Quarterly Review, set up to counteract the influence which the Edinburgh Review, conducted with great ability, was gradually acquiring, is managed chiefly by Wm. Gifford and Robert Southey, the poets, or verse writers; for the former can hardly be considered as having any claims to the first high character. Gifford was, for many years, a protege of lord March duke of Queensbury, and of course attached to the politics of the court, and of the old aristocracy, now completely amalgamated. Southey, a few years ago, an outrageous reformist, has joined Gifford, and now wars against the tenets of his former creed, with all the virulence of a renegade. This Review cannot admit that any thing is wrong in the present beautiful order of things in Great Britain; and is furious against those whose distempered activity would put in jeopardy the Corinthian pillars of civil society: Gifford and Southey adopt as their motto, that of the bishops:

Tough not a cobweb in St. Paul’s
Lest you should shake the dome!

Each of these conflicting reviews, aid indirectly, but with great effect, the political party to which they are attached, by the talent displayed in their respective publications. In every other species of literary merit, except that of classical acumen—an accurate, a minute, and critical knowledge of the Greek

and Roman languages and classics—wherein the Quarterly Review certainly has the advantage, the Edinburgh is superior. In virulence, not to say insolence, they are equal. Each of them strives to give a zest to their literary feast by throwing in the ‘Seasoning of Controversy,’ with an unsparing hand. But the talent of these writers has forced them upon the public notice, and both the Edinburgh and the Quarterly Reviews, stand at the head of miscellaneous periodical literature, in the island of Great Britain. The Monthly and the Critical, are falling into disrepute: the Analytical is no more. But a new one, conducted with the same political complexion, but with features not quite so sour as the Quarterly, is rising into notice under the title of the British Review; and which, if it continue to be conducted as it has been, will claim a full portion of the public attention.

In the scientific department of the Edinburgh Magazine, now under consideration, the news, can hardly be called the news of the day: the experiments of professor Leslie for instance, and of Dr. Clarke of Cambridge with the compound blow-pipe, have been known here for some time previous to the date of the Edinburgh Magazine.

It is strange, that the British publications should not notice the very reprehensible character of the claims to novelty in the experiments of Dr. Clarke; when every scientific man in England, (I might almost say in Europe) well knew that Mr. Hare of Philadelphia first conceived and first executed the idea of burning together, hydrogen and oxygen in the proportions proper to form water. The simplification of Mr. Hare’s complex apparatus by Mr. Cloud, made experiments of this kind familiar in this country long before the attempts of Mr. Brooke, Mr. Newman, or Dr. Clarke. Nor is there any thing now in the principle of condensation, which Mr. Cloud’s neat and simple machine is calculated to give with at least as much effect as the common condenser used by Mr. Newman.

We observe that the *Marquis Ridolphi* of Florence, has repeated some of Dr. Clarke’s experiments, with what he pleases to call phlogogene and therm-oxygen. But until the scientific gentlemen of London shall be able to perform with success the experiments described by Dr. Clarke, we must take the liberty of remaining sceptical as to the accuracy of those detailed by the Marquis Ridolphi.

‘The experiments (of Dr. Clarke) says professor Brande, have been made in this (the Royal) Institution, and were repeated a few days since in the presence of the most distinguished chemists now in the metropolis, but, without success.’ No one has yet complained that he could not repeat Mr. Hare’s. See *Journal of Science and the Arts*. No. IV. p. 461.

It is likely that we shall adopt the practice of the Edinburgh Magazine, and dedicate a few pages hereafter, to the analysis of some of the best English and foreign periodical publications.

PERIODICAL WORKS.

The Edinburgh Review. No. 54.

1. “Childe Harold’s Pilgrimage, Canto the Third, and The Prisoner of Chillon, and other Poems. By LORD

BYRON.”—In this article the Reviewers do not confine themselves altogether to these two publications, but the *Coroner* being the last work of Lord Byron of which they had given a particular ac-

count, they introduced their examination of the present works by notices of *Lara*, *The Siege of Corinth*, and other intermediate pieces. This *Third Canto of Childe Harold*, the Reviewers are persuaded will not be pronounced inferior to either of the former; and they think that it will probably be ranked above them by those who have been most delighted with the whole. Of *The Prisoner of Chillon* they speak in the language of praise; but the rest of the poems are said to be less amiable, and most of them, the Reviewers fear, have a personal and not very charitable application.

2. "A Letter to the Roman Catholic Priests of Ireland, on the expediency of reviving the Canonical mode of electing Bishops by Dean and Chapter, &c. By C. O."—There is no further notice of the book or its author. It is a dissertation on the Catholic question, in which the Reviewer endeavours to show that no securities whatever should be required from the Catholics as the condition of their emancipation.

3. "Defence of Usury: showing the impolicy of the present legal restraints on the terms of pecuniary bargains, in Letters to a Friend. To which is added, a Letter to Adam Smith, Esq. L. L. D. on the discouragements opposed by the above restraints to the progress of javentive industry. The third edition: to which is also added, second edition, a Protest against Law Taxes. By JEREMY BENTHAM, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn."—In this article the Reviewer begins with examining the reasons that have been urged in defence of the usury laws, and finds that they produce none of the good which they pretend to have in view; and then proceeds to point out the mischiefs which they create in all directions. These laws are considered to be also insufficient, and inconsistent with their avowed purposes, as they allow of transactions substantially usurious. The penalties imposed upon all who assist suitors in courts of justice, with the means of enforcing their rights, stipulating for a certain premium, which the law of England denominates *maintenance and champerty*, are reprobated as the growth of a barbarous age; and a very strong case is extracted from Mr. Bentham's treatise to show the ruinous conse-

quences of this law to needy suitors. The repeal of the usury laws, however, is held to be imprudent, at this particular crisis, as "all persons now owing money would inevitably have their creditors coming upon them for payment." It is to be wished the Reviewer had taken into consideration the effects which this repeal would produce upon the terms of loans to government, and upon the price of public funds.—The *Protest against Law Taxes* is highly extolled. The privilege of suing *in forma pauperis* is shown to be of little value. Stamps on law proceedings are censured; and the vulgar argument, that such taxes operate as a check to litigation, is said to be "triumphantly refuted" by Mr. Bentham.

4. "Wesentliche Betrachtungen oder Geschichte des Krieges Zwischen den Osmanen und Russen in den Jahren, 1768 bis 1774, von RESMI ACHMED EFENDI, aus dem Türkischen übersetzt und durch Anmerkungen erländert von HEINRICH FRIEDRICH VON DIEZ."—This book is a history of the war between Russia and the Ottoman Porte, in the years 1768—1774, originally written in Turkish by Resmi Achmed Efendi, and translated into German by M. Von Diez. The Reviewer has contrived, by the playfulness and pleasantry of his style, to render this short article very amusing. The work itself, he says, is dull enough in all conscience, but it is a literary curiosity.

5. "National Difficulties practically explained, and Remedies proposed as certain, speedy, and effectual, for the relief of all our present embarrassments."—The questions proposed for discussion in this article are, 1st, In what manner were the people of this country, who are now idle, formerly employed? The substance of the answer is, that foreign trade was "the source from which employment flowed to all classes of her industrious inhabitants."—2d, By what means were they deprived of this employment? The answer is, that this commerce was suddenly pent up, partly by a train of ill concerted measures at home, and partly by the policy of the enemy abroad, within the narrow bounds of the British territory. "We sought to ruin the enemy's trade, and we have succeeded in ruining our own"—And, 3d, whether

there is any probability that it (employment) ever will be regained? This is the most important question. "We have no proof," the Reviewer says, "that the consumption of our manufactures, either in Europe or in America, has fallen off." Our error has been in overstocking these markets; but the goods will be consumed, and trade revive.—The most important of the other causes of the distress which prevails are, the decline of agriculture, and the increase of taxation.

6. "The Works of Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, and of Sir Thomas Wyatt, the Elder. Edited by GEORGE FREDERICK NOTT, D. D. F. S. A. late Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford." For one of these quartos, that which contains the works of the Earl of Surrey, the Reviewers are inclined to make every allowance, and to muster up every thing favourable; but Sir Thomas Wyatt "was in no true sense of the word a poet;" and as their object is to consider poets and poetry, they take leave of him at once. This article contains a summary of the Life of the Earl of Surrey, and a critique on his poetry.—"We see not the slightest ground," say the Reviewers, "for depriving Chaucer, in any one respect, of his title of Father of English Poetry," and "we are heartily ready to allow that Surrey well deserves that of the eldest son, however he was surpassed by the brothers that immediately followed him.

7. "Narrative of a Journey in Egypt, and the Country beyond the Cataracts. By THOMAS LEGH, Esq. M. P."—The Reviewers speak well of this work.—After accompanying Mr. Legh on his journey, and extracting a very interesting part of the narrative, they conclude with some account of the Wahabees of Arabia, chiefly taken from the Travels of Ali Bey.

8. "The Statesman's Manual; or the Bible the best Guide to Political skill and foresight; a Lay Sermon, addressed to the higher classes of Society; with an Appendix. By S. T. COLERIDGE, Esq."—This article abounds in ridicule and metaphor as well as in argument. If any one delights in seeing a poor author cut up, he must be amply gratified by this indignant and scornful performance.

9. "Letters from St. Helena. By WILLIAM WARDEN, Surgeon on board

the Northumberland."—The Reviewers point out some mistakes in Mr. Warden's historical recollections, but observe, "that there is an air of plainness and sincerity in his account of what he saw and heard, that recommends it strongly to the confidence of his readers." Only a small portion of the article is devoted to Mr. Warden's book. The greater part is occupied "with a short and general view of the public and political life of Napoleon, with such facts and anecdotes interspersed, as have been furnished to us, on good authority, from persons familiarly connected with him at different periods of his fortune, or obtained from some of our countrymen, who saw and conversed with him during his residence in the Isle of Elba." This delectable compilation would have done honor to M. Bertrand himself. It is distinguished throughout by an exaggerated representation of what is praise-worthy in the character and conduct of Napoleon, and, what is infinitely worse, by a palpable anxiety to apologize for his greatest enormities.

10. "Della Patria di Cristoforo Colombo. Dissertazione pubblicata nelle Memorie dell' Accademia Imperiale delle Scienze di Torino. Restampata con Quinte, Documenti, Lettere diverse, &c. and Regionamento nel Quale si conforma l' Opinione Generale intorno alla Patria di Cristoforo Colombo,—Presentato all' Accademia delle Scienze, Lettere, e Arti di Genova,—Nell' Adunanza del di 16. Dicembre 1812, dagli Accademici Serra, Carrega e Piaggio."—The object of the first of these works is to prove that Columbus was a Piedmontese, and of the latter, that, as has been generally held, he was a Genoese. The Reviewers are of this last opinion. To this discussion is subjoined a most interesting letter,* written by Columbus upon his return from the first voyage in which he discovered the New World, and despatched from Lisbon, where he landed, to one of the Spanish king's council. It has been almost entirely overlooked by historians.

11. "Statements respecting the East India College, with an Appeal to facts, in refutation of the charges lately

* See *Analectic Magazine* of June 1817—vol. ix. p. 513.

brought against it in the Court of Proprietors. By the REV. T. R. MALTHUS, &c."—Mr. Malthus and the Reviewers, *alter et idem* perhaps, agree in thinking that some sort of instruction is really desirable for the future Judges and Magistrates of India, and this indeed is a point tolerably well proved, though not till after a good deal of time and labour has been employed about it.—But whether the College at Hertford be the very best institution for the purpose is not quite so clear. The arguments in defence of it are of too general a nature, and the "disturbances" on which the objection to it rests, too slightly noticed, to enable the public to come to any decided opinion, without having access to information of a more definite and tangible character.

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The Quarterly Review. No. 31.

1. "Narrative of a Journey in Egypt and the Country beyond the Cataracts. By THOMAS LEGH, Esq. M. P."—"On the present occasion," say the Reviewers, "we have nothing to find fault with but the omissions." Mr. Legh may rejoice that he has escaped so well from the ordeal of these opposite courts of criticisms.

2. "Counsellor PHILLIPS's Poems and Speeches."—Mr. Phillips's sins against good taste are not a little aggravated in the eyes of these Reviewers by his political opinions.

3. "A Treatise on the Records of the Creation, and on the Moral Attributes of the Creator, with particular reference to the Jewish History, and to the consistency of the principle of population with the Wisdom and Goodness of the Deity. By JOHN BIRD SUMNER, M. A."—Mr. Burnett, a gentleman of Aberdeenshire, bequeathed a sum to be set apart till it should accumulate to 1800*l.*, which was then to be given to the authors of the two best Essays on the subject of Mr. Sumner's book,—to the first in merit, 1200*l.*, and to the second, 400*l.* The second prize was assigned to Mr. Sumner, of whose Treatise the Reviewers present a pretty full, and apparently an impartial, examination in this interesting article. Their observations on the principle of population, lead to conclusions very different from those of Mr. Malthus, and are, we hope, better supported by history and experience.

4. "A Voyage round the World, from 1806 to 1812; in which Japan, Kamschatka, the Aleutian Islands, and the Sandwich Islands, were visited, &c. By ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL."—Campbell is a poor young sailor, who had lost both feet, and was found by Mr. Smith, the Editor of the volume, in one of the steam boats that ply on the Clyde, playing on the violin for the amusement of the passengers. "The hope that an account of his voyage might be of service to an unfortunate and deserving man, and not unacceptable to those who take pleasure in contemplating the progress of mankind in the arts of civilization, gave rise to the present publication." The book itself contains much that is curious, and adds not a little to our still very imperfect knowledge of the remote regions visited by the author.

5. "Shakespeare's Himself again! &c. By ANDREW BECKET."—An article full of irony and banter, apparently a well deserved chastisement of this unfortunate commentator.

6. "Tracts on Saving Banks."—There is a great deal of information about those banks collected in this article, but the Reviewer is too zealous and too sanguine to perceive the inconveniences which must be felt from adopting the plans of Mr. Duncan; and, while he bestows well-merited praise on the benevolent exertions of this gentleman, we think that he hardly does justice to some of the other fellow labourers.

7. "Cowper's Poems and Life."—The third volume of the poems, edited by John Johnson, L. L. D., the first work embraced by this Review, is considered decidedly inferior as to its predecessors. The other two treatises are memoirs, said to be written by Cowper himself, and never before published. From what we see of them here, the only subject of regret is, that they should ever have been published at all. The article contains a general character of Cowper's poetry and letters.

8. "A Sketch of the British Fur Trade in North America, with Observations relative to the North-west Company of Montreal. By the EARL of SELKIRK: and Voyage de la Mer Atlantique a' l'Ocean Pacifique par le Nord-ouest dans la Mer Glaciale; par le Capitaine Laurent Ferrer Maldonado l'an 1888. Nouvellement traduit,

See." Lord Selkirk, some years ago, attempted to divert the tide of emigration from the Highlands of Scotland to the United States, and turn it to Prince Edward's Island, within the territories of Great Britain. More lately, his views of colonization seem to have become more extensive; and having purchased about a third part of the stock of the Hudson's Bay Company, he obtained from their governors a grant of a wide extent of country, held or supposed to be held, under their charter, of which he proceeded to take possession. The settlers on this tract have been molested, it appears, by the servants of the North-west Company, between which and the Hudson's Bay Company there had long subsisted a deadly feud; and some very extraordinary proceedings are understood to have taken place on both sides. According to Lord Selkirk, the fur trade is not in the best hands, nor carried on in a very honourable manner. The North-west Company is pointedly accused, indeed, of great violence and injustice, for which, as the law at present stands, it is extremely difficult, or altogether impossible, to call its servants to account. Of the Hudson's Bay Company, the Reviewers do not think so well as Lord Selkirk does.—The rest of this article, and that which is of a far deeper interest, relates to the North-west passage. The relation of Maldonado's voyage is held to be a clumsy and audacious forgery. The Reviewers firmly believe, however, that a navigable passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific, round the northern coast of America, does exist, and may be of no difficult execution. In support of this opinion, they proceed to examine the various unsuccessful attempts that have been made at different periods.—No human being, they say, has yet approached the coast of America on the eastern side, from 66 degrees and a half to 72 degrees, and here it is thought the passage may be found.

9. "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage, Canto III.; and the Prisoner of Chillon, and other Poems. By Lord Byron."—If the heart of Lord Byron be not dead to every emotion of pleasure and gratitude, this article must stir up those feelings in no common degree. The Reviewer displays throughout, not only the powers of a poet and of a critic of

the highest order, but the delicacy and solicitude of a friend, without, however, shutting his eyes to the eccentricities and misjudged exhibitions of this lugubrious and indignant misanthrope.—There are one or two digressions in it somewhat curious, for they may be thought to identify the Reviewer,—upon much the same grounds as Childe Harold has been supposed to speak the sentiments of Lord Byron. In the first, he disputes the proposition, that rapidity of composition and publication endangers the fame of an author of great talents. A little after it is stated, as an axiom, that "every author should, like Lord Byron, form to himself, and communicate to the reader, a precise, defined, and distinct view of the landscape, sentiment, or action, which he intends to describe to the reader."—Lord Byron's political opinions, of course, meet with no favour; but his sins of omission, as well as commission, though pointed out in forcible language, do not call forth those expressions of contumely and bitterness, which so often disgrace the subalterns in political hostilities. There is something very serious, or, so different are peoples' tastes, perhaps amusing, at the conclusion of this article. It is impossible not to see in it the goodness of the writer's heart, though we make no doubt that others may pretend to discover also a slight infusion of amiable simplicity. For our own parts, we cannot help suspecting that there is a reasonable portion of affectation in some of Lord Byron's dolorous verses; and that to treat him like a spoilt child will not have much efficacy in removing the complaint. If any one should hereafter think it necessary, in order to establish his superiority of talent, to begin with distinguishing himself in the circles of vice and folly, despising the restraints to which ordinary mortals have agreed to submit, he may be led to doubt of the certainty of this mode of proving his claim, when he is assured that the moral and religious regimen, here prescribed to Lord Byron, has been very faithfully observed, both in the private and public life of several of the most distinguished writers of the present age.

10. "Warden's Letters."—"Mr. Warden's pretences and falsehoods," say the Reviewers, "if not detected on

the spot, and at the moment when the means of detection happen to be at hand, might hereafter tend to deceive other writers, and poison the sources of history." The motive of the Reviewers is therefore a very laudable one, and the 'detection' will no doubt be very satisfactory to a certain class of readers. But the historian! Sources of history! If the historian and philosopher should sit down to this, and the corresponding article in the *Edinburgh Review*, about a hundred years hence, what must he think of the political parties, and of the state of literature, in Britain in the year 1816? Mr. Warden is a "blundering, presumptuous, and falsifying scribbler;" and the proof is, that he actually brought the materials of this book from St. Helena, in the shape of notes, instead of having really despatched letters from sea, and from St. Helena, to a correspondent in England!

11. "Parliamentary Reform."—That part of this article which corresponds with its title, contains sentiments, about the justness of which there will be little difference of opinion among well informed men. None but the most ignorant can expect, and none but the most wrongheaded, or unprincipled, will teach the people to expect any relief under the present distresses of the country, from universal suffrage and annual parliaments. But the Reviewer does not confine himself to topics, in the discussion of which, he would have carried along with him the approbation of all those whose approbation is of any value. Unfortunately, we think, for the cause of which he is so able an advocate, he has introduced a great deal of extraneous matter, concerning which men of the clearest heads and purest intentions, cannot be brought to agree. He has also counteracted the effects which the soundness of his judgment, and the powers of his eloquence, might have otherwise produced upon misguided or unthinking reformers, by indulging in a strain of violent exaggeration and reproach. So wide a departure from the Roman poet's maxim of *suaviter in modo, fortiter in re*, brings him too near to the style of the orators and authors whom he so justly exposes, and is inconsistent with the respect which so able a writer owes to himself and to his readers.

MEMORANDUMS OF A VIEW-HUNTER.
From the Edinburgh Monthly Magazine.

London, 5th March, 1817.

MR. EDITOR.—If you can find room for some brief sketches of a view-hunter, who has a little enthusiasm in his line, and who, like not a few of his countrymen, has been a view-hunting lately in France, his memorandum book is very much at your service. The sketches have at least one merit—they are warm from the life.

No. I.

To Dover.

———Preparing the race-ground for the races. This raised a train of ideas about the D——, S——, the fair M——, and all that, varied but pleasing. —Pretty clean-looking village of Bridge in the bottom. The country rich with gentlemen's houses and garden-like enclosures. The track was now new to me. This had been the boundary of my former trips on the Dover road. The dale to the right, with hamlets, villages, churches, gentlemen's seats, appears peculiarly elegant, contrasted with the plainness on the left. The road is earried along the east side of a valley. This valley is narrow and rich—of the glen sort—and, as we approach Dover, it has several pleasing vista-openings in the Scottish stile.

We got a small peep of the channel, two or three miles from Dover. The town itself is scarcely seen till we enter. On descending to the bottom, in which it stands, we took up a little man about twenty, one of the most free and easy persons I have ever met with. He introduced himself to us in a moment, and gave us all the information we wanted; indeed, much more than my companion S—— seemed to want. But I was pleased with the rattle for the moment. He, however, did not lack either sense or discrimination. He pointed out the stream that creeps in the bottom, as being reckoned the richest in England of its size, for manufacturing returns. So he said. Saw several paper manufactories and flour mills. One of the former, he said, was famous for fine paper; the scenery of its banks pleasing, and, from this account, it became more interesting. It seems to descend from a vista on the right, and to run only four or five miles.

Our attention was attracted by a

group of young women promenading in a green field on its bank, near a very small rustic chapel and church-yard; the latter only about fifty feet square. The whole formed a fine rural picture. On descending to the level of the stream, we found both the footway and the road covered with walkers; for this was Sunday afternoon, and the weather was uncommonly fine. When we entered the town, we still found the footway—for it has a footway on each side, and this was one of the few we were to see for many a hundred mile—still crowded with promenaders. The people well dressed, particularly the women. The girls very pretty. Seldom have seen so many fine faces in a town of the same size; but it was Kent. A smile on every countenance. I like to see the evening of the Sabbath-day kept in this cheerful but decorous manner.

I shall compare this with what I see at Calais, said I to my companions of the top.

Dover.

At the Paris hotel. Very good house. Civil and attentive. Full of passengers to and from the continent. Walked out with my companions, Dr. B. and Mr. S., to view-hunt a little on the heights on so fine an afternoon. The town built on a narrow slip of land at the bottom of steep chalky cliffs. Ascended a circular excavation in the chalk. Three winding stairs up it, of about 200 steps. Made some years ago. Centinels both at the entry below and above. Part of the works of defence, on the top of the hill, a little to the right of this. Ascend it by ladder stairs on the outside. These have a fine effect, combined with the fortifications. The castle, also, has a venerable and picturesque appearance from this station.

I inquired about Shakspeare's cliff of the soldiers. A decent-looking militiaman, who was carrying a pretty child, while two more were playing round him, pointed it out to me—a mile or so off. A few halfpence made the little folks very happy, and the parent's fond eye glisten with delight. I cast a wishful look to this favourite cliff.—The declining day was so fine. But Dr. B. said, he was so fatigued he could not think of it; and as I could not leave him so abruptly, I was obliged to give up the project, but not without regret that was constantly recurring. This is the inconvenience of a view-

hunter entangling himself with any non-view-hunter as a travelling companion. He is prevented from seeing half of what he may see.—A word to view-hunters. I determined to give my companions the slip for the future, except at meals.

I then proposed ascending to the citadel. The way at first steep, and nearly on the edge of the precipice. Dr. B. said to some of the soldiers who pointed out our way, as they were reclining on the declivity, that it looked like ascending to the skies. Nothing of that sort, said a drummer. I have climbed it often, and I never found I was a bit nearer heaven than before. The pert drummer might not be very far wrong with respect to himself.

The view of the harbour, which is a tide one, and very extensive, having gates between the outer and inner station, with the ships so far below us, formed an interesting picture. The sea was delightfully calm. The white cliffs of France, whither we were going, had their effect. The sight set us a talking of the probability of the junction of Great Britain formerly with the continent. The sameness of the soil, and other geological phenomena, and the proximity, seemed to make a junction likely; the vast length of the British channel, and the wide German ocean approaching so near, render a separation from the first as natural. In short, whether this part of the channel was once an isthmus, and Albion a peninsula, or not, will ever be a doubtful speculation. We have nothing but conjectural reasons, and these appear to be as strong on the one side as the other.

Two very bonny lasses, with a fine child, ascended at the same time with us, but still nearer the precipice. I begged them, for Heaven's sake, not to go so near. They laughed, and went still nearer; and sat down almost on the very edge of the tremendous precipice, which, even at the distance we were standing, made us shudder. Goodbye, my poor dears, said I to them; I shall see you no more. They gave me some jocular reply. Such is the effect of custom.

Went up to the citadel. Not allowed to enter. A nice-looking woman and her husband on the drawbridge. She seemed quite frightened. On raising my eyes, I soon found the cause of her terror. They were going to fire the

evening gun from the rampart. The picture was truly fine. The poor female was crouching down on the bridge, though the gun was full twelve feet above her, and stopping her ears; and the artillery men were standing in order by it, waiting till the sun, who was now going down, should sink under the hill. We were at unequal distances, watching the hand that held the lighted match. This was applied. The height seemed to shake under us. The thunder ran round the hills for some time, and returned again. The varied and pleasing form of these winding heights, with their picturesque ornaments—the glens between them, which put me in mind of some of the glens of the Grampians, though in miniature—and the brilliant tints which the sun had left behind him, received such an addition from this simple and familiar incident, that Dr. B., who seemed to possess a very moderate share of view-hunting enthusiasm, exclaimed, "Tis truly grand and beautiful!" I felt the justness of the observation home, and I echoed it with the most cordial assent.

As we marched off, highly delighted with this short evening view-hunt, we were assailed by a host of native enemies. These were hornets. I did not mind them, and they soon left me. But Dr. B. was quite alarmed. In vain I advised him to let them alone. The more he laboured to chase these buzzers away, the more furious and numerous did they return to the attack. I have frequently found these insects near cannon and ordnance depots. I do not know why.

While we sat at tea, a little valetudinarian Jew, whom they called Moses, offered his services in the money-changing line. He said he followed this business merely for the sake of a little amusing employment. He charged a penny more for his Louises (of twenty francs) than I had paid in London, or 16s. 4d. He wanted very much to tempt me to part with some of the slips of paper I had received from Hammersly, for French gold—no doubt by way of amusement also. But in vain he offered me a *douceur*, as I meant to keep my paper till I got to Paris. He loitered in the coffee-room, and again and again he attempted to bribe me to part with it. Pho! thought I, as I sipped my tea; and is the theory of our bullion committee come to this in practice. The notes of

the Bank of England, alone, are now from eight to ten millions more than when this learned body, far above the prejudices of metal-money times no doubt, were theorizing; and yet here is a Jew (for the sake of mere amusement, it is granted) offers me more gold for my paper money, than even its mint price warrants. His urgency, also, certainly looks very much like his considering paper really more valuable than gold. 'Tis a pity that facts will still be giving the negation flat to certain favourite theories. We shall, however, reach something like good sense on money at length, perhaps. I say *good*, and not *common* sense; for the common sense on the subject of money, as on many others, has a good deal of that negative kind of sense in it which is stiled nonsense.

All this, it is to be noticed, I thought, and not said. From some remark that had fallen from Dr. B. I perceived he was an adherent of the metal money party, and I was a decided partisan of paper. Now it is well known, that a regular argumentation on paper and metal money, unless abruptly terminated by a quarrel or a duel—to say nothing of disturbing all around us with our noise—seldom, on a moderate calculation, abates in its violence in less than two hours and a half. But I wished to retire to bed early, and therefore I did not offer battle.

My bed-room was just under a perpendicular cliff of chalk, say, from 150 to 200 feet high. Suppose now, thought I to myself, this cliff should tumble down in the night. However, thought I to myself again, this perpendicular cliff has stood during the nights of several thousand years, and why should it, of all nights, fall down on the very night that I sleep at Dover?—And sleep there I did, and very soundly too. In three minutes I was unconscious of existence, and dreamt neither of Jews changing money for mere amusement, metal nor paper, bullion committees, nor yet perpendicular cliffs of chalk.

And now, sir, with your permission, I shall postpone my invasion of France till next month.

—
From the same.

ON SITTING BELOW THE SALT.

MR. EDITOR.—It is very pleasing to observe with what care the most popular writers of this age are obliged to

guarded against introducing any circumstances, even in their works of a nature entirely fictitious, which do not harmonise with the manners of the period wherein the scene of their story is laid. The example of such authors as Scott, Southey, and Byron, who display so much erudition even in the most trifling matters of costume, must soon put an end to the rage for historical poems and romances from the pens of such half-informed writers as Miss Porter, Miss Holford, and the like. The novels 'founded on fact,' as they are called, with which some of these female connoisseurs have thought fit to present the world, abound every where in violations of historical truth as gross, and in sine against costume as glaring, as ever astounded the reader of a romance of the thirteenth century. As in these productions of that dark age, Achilles and Hector are always painted like true knights of Languedoc or Armoria, with saltires and fesses on their shields, with mottoes, merry-men, peanons, gonfalons, caps of maintenance, close vi-siers, tabarts, trampeters, and all the trappings of Gothic chivalry—so in the 'Scottish Chiefs,' we find sir William Wallace, 'that stout heart knyght of Enderlee,' metamorphosed into an interesting young colonel, making love to a delicate lady, with one arm in a sling, and a cambrio handkerchief in his hand—quoting Ossian, warbling ballads, and recovered from a sentimental swoon by the application of a crystal smelling-bottle. It would have been cruel indeed to have brought so fine a gentleman to the block on Tower-hill; so Miss Porter contrives to smuggle sir William out of the way on the fatal morning, and introduces a dead porter to have his head chopped off in his stead.

These observations were suggested to me, by hearing some persons in a company where I was the other day, call in question the accuracy of the author of the 'Tales of my Landlord,' in respect to an antiquarian remark which he has introduced in two different parts of his work. The first occurs in the description of the feast, in page 261 of the 'Black Dwarf.'—"Beneath the salt-cellar," says he, "(a massive piece of plate which occupied the middle of the table) sat the *sine nomine turba*, men whose vanity was gratified by occupying even the subordinate space at the

social board, while the distinction observed in ranking them, was a salvo to the pride of their superiors." In the same manner, in the tale of 'Old Mortality,' in the admirable picture of the Laird of Millwood's dinner, the old butler Cuddie, &c. sat "at a considerable distance from the laird, and, of course, *below the salt*." The critics, whose remarks it was my fortune to hear, were of opinion, that this usage of placing guests above or below the salt, according to the degree of nobility in their blood, was a mere invention of the facetious author, and entirely without any foundation in history;—or, as one of them expressed it, *totum merum sal*. It struck me at the time, that the usage was not so new to my ears as it seemed to be to theirs, and, on coming home, I looked into a volume of old English ballads, where I found the following verse:

"Thou art a carle mean of degre,
Ye salt yt doth stande twain me and thee;
But an thou hadst been of ane gentyl strayne,
I wold have bitten my gante* againe"

An instance of the importance attached to the circumstance of being seated above the salt, occurs in a much later work—"The Memorie of the Somervilles," a curious book, edited last year by Mr. Walter Scott—"It was," says lord Somerville, (who wrote about the year 1680) "as much out of peike as to give obedience to this act of the assemblies, that Walter Stewart of Allontounne, and sir James his brother, both heretors in the parish of Cambusnethen, the first, from some antiquity, a few of the earle of Tweddill's in Auchtermuire, whose predecessors, until this man, never came to sit above the salt-foot, when at the laird of Cambusnethen's (Somerville's) table; which for ordinary every Sabbath they dynd at, as did most of the honest men of the parish of any account." Vol. II. page 394.

The same author is indeed so familiar with this usage as one of every day observance, that he takes notice of it again in speaking of a provost of Edinburgh:—"He was a gentleman of very mean family upon Clyde, being brother german to the Goodman of Allentone, whose predecessors never came to sit above the salt-foot." Page 380, *ibid*.

* i. e. glass.

SPAIN.

The strict prohibition of journals published in England or the Netherlands, which had for some time been suspended, is renewed with great severity, probably on account of the popular discontent manifested at some late acts of the government. The frequent arrests for political offences, is said to be regarded with particular disgust.

Letters from Spain of the 4th February state, that in consequence of a new impost, levied on charcoal at Valencia, which bore very hard on the poor in the winter season, the people murmured, and at last deputed commissioners to wait on the governor (Elio) with their complaints. Instead of listening to them, Elio put the commissioners in prison: the people rushed to arms, and liberated them; and the governor, in his turn, was obliged to fly to the citadel. The insurgents kept possession of the city all the 17th January; but on the 18th, supplies of troops arriving, they were overpowered, and the governor liberated. He attempted to put to death some of the rioters without trial, but the judges of the high court of justice declared, they could allow no citizen to be executed without a trial. The governor threatened to imprison the judges. The citizens were emboldened by this vigorous conduct of the judges, and affairs wore so serious an aspect, that Elio posted off to Madrid to lay the matter before the king.

The report of some commotions having arisen in Valencia, agrees very well with what we know of the present state of popular feeling in Spain, viewed in connexion with such instances as the following, of the cruelty of their semi-barbarous government:—

Pamplona, Feb. 10th. On the 2d, 3d, and 4th of this month, and in the prison of this city, the torture was inflicted on captain Olivan, who, for this purpose, was brought down from the citadel, where he had been confined during eight months, merely because he was suspected of disaffection to government. Amidst the most execrating pangs, no other than energetic declarations of his own innocence were heard, as well as of that of more than thirty other officers confined with him under similar circumstances.' *ib.*

SPANISH AMERICA.

The cause of the insurgents in Spanish America ebbs and flows with such

rapid and uncertain vicissitude, that it is extremely difficult to give any thing like a correct view of the state of the contest in these widely extended regions. We see them defeated and driven from place to place—rallying, returning, and victorious in their turn; but no decisive advantage seems as yet to have been gained by either party, nor does there appear, in the accounts which have reached this country, sufficient materials from which to form a decided opinion on the future progress and final results of a contest which is marked by want of system and energy on both sides. Whatever may be the result of the present struggle, however the time cannot be far distant when these extensive countries will form several rich, powerful, and independent states, a consummation devoutly to be wished—for their own sakes, and for the general prosperity of the civilized world, of which they are probably destined to form one of the most valuable and interesting divisions. Lord Cochrane and sir Robert Wilson are said to be about to embark in the cause of Spanish American independence. Such strongly constructed and unquiet minds seem to be necessary to the progress of human affairs; and in this scene of trouble their energies may produce a happy effect upon the hitherto feeble and unenlightened subjects of one of the worst governments that ever oppressed and degraded the human race.—Sir Gregor Mac Gregor, who has so much distinguished himself in this contest, is the son of the late capt. Daniel Mac Gregor, a gentleman of Argyllshire, in Scotland, who was long an officer in India. He is under thirty years of age, served as a captain with the British army in Spain, was afterwards colonel in the British service, and had a Spanish order of knighthood conferred upon him, and was allowed by the prince regent to assume the title in his native country.

The Portuguese troops have invaded the territory of Monte Video; but whether in consequence of an arrangement with old Spain, or with a view to conquest on their own account, does not seem to be very clearly ascertained. It is not likely that their interference will materially affect the general result, except in so far as it may have a tendency to carry the flame of revolution into their own transatlantic territories.

ib.

ITALY.

On the 15th of December, a Catholic priest proceeded on foot to the cathedral of Adria, in Lombardy, and returned thanks for having attained his 110th year, without infirmities or sickness! He was accompanied by an immense concourse of people, and chaunted the cathedral service in a firm, manly, and dignified voice.

The German papers have brought us a document of greater importance than usual, in the shape of a new constitution for Sicily. That interesting portion of Europe has lost nothing by the restoration of the legitimate sovereign to the throne of his ancestors. The king of Naples, unlike his namesake and cousin, the king of Spain, has signalized his restoration by confirming and extending the blessings of a free constitution.

Canova.—The pope had attached to the title of marquis of Ischia, which he conferred on the sculptor Canova, an annual pension of 3000 crowns. This celebrated artist has disposed of this revenue in the following manner: First, a fixed donation to the Roman academy of archeology of 600 crowns. Second, 1070 crowns to found annual prizes, and a triennial prize for sculpture painting and architecture, which the young artists of Rome, and the Roman states only, are competent to obtain. Third, 100 crowns to the academy of St. Lue. Fourth, 120 crowns to the academy of the Lynx; and fifth, 1010 crowns to relieve poor, old, and infirm artists residing in Rome. *ib.*

CEYLON.

The Dutch planters of Ceylon have adopted some judicious regulations for the gradual abolition of slavery; all children born of slaves, after the 12th of August last, are to be considered free, but to remain in their master's house, and serve him for board, lodging, and clothing; the males till the age of 14, and the females till 12—after which to be fully emancipated. *ib.*

AFRICA.

Congo expedition.—The detailed accounts of the expedition to explore the river Congo, or Zaire, reached the admiralty some weeks ago. Melancholy as the result has been, from the great mortality of officers and men, owing to

the excessive fatigue, rather than to the effect of climate, the journals of captain Tuckey, and the gentlemen in the scientific departments, are, it is said, highly interesting and satisfactory, as far as they go, and we believe they extend considerably beyond the first rapid, or cataract. It would seem, indeed, that the mortality was entirely owing to the land journey beyond these rapids, and that captain Tuckey died of complete exhaustion after leaving the river, and not from fever.

We lament to learn, that when the Dorothy transport was at Cabendo, in the end of October last, there were ten Portuguese ships in the port waiting for slaves, and two from Spain.

The Congo discovery vessel arrived at Portsmouth from Bahia last month. The journal of the lamented captain Tuckey is said to describe the country he explored for 226 miles as a rocky desert, and thinly peopled region, not worthy of further research. *ib.*

FRANCE.

The stamp-duty on Magazines in France, which subjected even a prospectus of a literary work to a stamp-duty, is at length found to be totally unproductive; and not only so, but actually injurious to the best interests of the state. Several of the works we have already announced as suspended, on account of the tax, are now in the course of being resumed: of these, the most important is the *Magazine Encyclopedique*, of M. Millin. This work had grown to such an extent, (130 volumes,) that it was deemed advisable by the learned editor to avail himself of the suspension, to terminate the series, and commence a new one; which may either be regarded as an entirely new work, or a continuation of the old one, under an improved form: for this reason he has changed the title to *Annales Encyclopediques*, the first number of which appeared on the first of March, and will be regularly continued every month, and not in volumes every two months. The tax being repealed, there no longer exists the necessity of publishing in volumes; and it will, therefore, appear as heretofore. Subscribers' names will be taken in at our publisher's.

On the 24th of April the NAPOLEON MUSEUM of Statues was re-opened at Paris; it has lost several of the *chefs-*

d'œuvres, but it is still rich in masterpieces, and is superior to any other collection in the world.

MADAME DE STAEL is said to have sold her *Memoirs* of M. Neckar to an association of English, French, and German editors, for 4000*l.*; the work is to appear in the three languages at one time.

The grand desideratum of rendering sea water potable, seems at length to be attained by simple distillation. The French chemists have been unable to discover, in distilled sea water, any particle of salt or soda in any form; and, it is ascertained, that one cask of coals will serve to distil six casks of water.

A vessel going on a voyage of discovery by order of the French government, commanded by M. Freycinet, will only take fresh water for the first fortnight; but, instead thereof, coals, which will be but one-sixth of the tonnage; distilled sea water being perfectly as good as fresh water that has been a fortnight on board.

Light infusions of ginger alone, taken twice or thrice a-day, have been found very efficacious by the French surgeons in rheumatic affections. The pains are rendered at first more excruciating—then follows copious perspiration and relief.

MONS. DORION has discovered that the bark of the pyramidal ash, in powder, thrown into the boiling juice of the sugar-cane, effects its clarification; the planters of Guadaloupe had given him 100,000 francs, and those of Martinique a like sum, for communicating his discovery.

Mon. Mag.

RUSSIA.

There are at Petersburg fourteen printing houses, of which three belong to the Senate, the Synod, and the War-office. The others belong to the academies, or to individuals; one prints in the Tartar language, another prints music. There are thirteen foreign booksellers; and about thirty Russian. There are also reading-rooms.

ib.

ENGLAND.

MR. HATCHETT has contrived a process for sweetening musty corn. Musty grain, which is so bitter as to be totally unfit for use, and which can scarcely be ground, may be rendered perfectly sweet and sound by simply immersing it in boiling water, and letting it remain

till the water becomes cold. The quantity of water to be double that of the corn to be purified. The musty quality rarely penetrates through the husk of the wheat; and in the very worst cases, it does not extend through the amylaceous matter which lies immediately under the skin. In the hot water, all the decayed or rotten grains swim on the surface, so that the remaining wheat is effectually cleaned from all impurities, without any material loss. The wheat is afterwards to be dried, stirring it occasionally on the kiln, when it will be found improved in a degree which can scarcely be believed.

MR. EDMUND DAVY, professor of chemistry to the Cork Institution, announces that new seconds flour, of indifferent or bad quality, is materially improved, for the purpose of making bread, when the common carbonate of magnesia is well mixed with it in the proportion of from 20 to 40 grains to a pound of flour. He made a number of comparative experiments on the worst seconds flour he could procure, with and without the addition of the magnesia; and the results have uniformly been satisfactory. In the proportion of 12 grains to a pound of flour, calcined magnesia improved the bread, but not nearly to the same extent as the carbonate. He conceives that the carbonate of magnesia acts on the bread in two ways: chemically, by correcting its tendency to acidity; and mechanically, by improving its texture. It improved the colour of bread made from new seconds flour, whilst it impaired the colour of bread from fine old and new flour.

ib.

Artificial Ears.

In the London Medical and Physical Journal, we observed it mentioned, that Mr. Curtis, Surgeon, of Soho Square, Auriat to the Prince Regent, has introduced into this country, from France, a valuable improvement—artificial ears for deaf persons. By being closely adapted to the ear, they increase the collection of sound; but, besides the collection of sounds, there is an additional force wanted to transmit it through the passage. In this respect, the French invention being deficient, a small tube, which is added, by contracting the passage, occasions the sound to enter with greater force. The form of this ingenious contrivance is

particularly convenient; being applied over the natural ears, which the artificial ones are made to resemble.

Mr. Curtis has likewise invented a hearing trumpet, which forms a parabolic conoid on the same principle as the speaking trumpet used at sea, which is so well known to answer the purpose in extending the impression of sound. It has this convenience, that it shuts up in a small case for the pocket.

Mr. Curtis also, in his Lectures on diseases of the Ear, exhibited to his pupils a variety of improvements for assisting hearing, many of them newly brought from the continent.

Antij. Rev.

The foundation of all the good which the *Royal Lancasterian System of Education* has produced, to above 200,000 children, is well known to be its principle of economy. But a recent new invention of Mr. LANCASTER's is, we understand, likely to add to its powers, beyond the most sanguine expectations of its friends. It will furnish means for supplying the schools of whole empires with lessons, in a boundless variety of subjects, independent of dialects and languages, in a convenient and portable shape, and at a trifling expense. We are at present at liberty only to state the probable results. The public will be sensible, that it is only needful for these results to be justified, for such an invention to become a blessing to all nations. The moment the description of this improvement is ready for publication, we shall not fail to make our readers acquainted with this additional means of extending knowledge. Mr. Lancaster's History of his Life and Travels, to promote education in this empire, especially in Ireland, is getting into a state of great forwardness; a most numerous, noble, and respectable list of subscribers is already furnished, and daily increasing. It must be pleasing to see the true friends of education rally round the first friend of poor children, and thereby contribute to a work so interesting to mankind.

In Poetry, Dr. SYMMONS' translation of the *Æneis*, from the magnitude and difficulty of the attempt, claims our first consideration. It is, we grant, a respectable performance—but, when we compare it with the masterly and vehement version of Dryden, or even the inferior,

though harmonious and correct, translation of Pitt—we are compelled to say, that Dr. Symmons does not shine with the lustre we could wish to behold in all the works of so excellent a man, and elegant a scholar.—The *House of Mourning*, by Mr. JOHN SCOTT, is a poem replete with rich, but gloomy, fancy, such as may be imagined to characterise the efforts of a powerful imagination, exercised upon a subject so afflicting as the premature death of a darling and blooming son. We might advance a few legitimate objections as to metre and cadence, but sacred be the accents of sorrow, and revered the deep and heavy sadness that breathes in the lines of him—who was a father.—Of Mr. P. BAYLEY's *Idéal*, we regret that we cannot speak in terms calculated to encourage the author in his design of publishing the poem, of which the present is only a part. The verse is labour-ed, tame, and diffuse, abounding in expletives, and deficient in the fire and energy, the *visida vis animi*, of poetic inspiration.—The *Bower of Spring*, by the author of “the *Paradise of Coquettes*,” is a beautiful effort of imagination; the diction is peculiarly soft and splendid, and the fancy of the reader is at once warmed and dazzled by the glowing loveliness of its conception and imagery.

In this department we are called upon with pleasure to notice a new production of the Nestor of modern poets, in an *Epistle to the Emperor of China, on his uncourtly and impolitic Behaviour to the sublime Ambassador of Great Britain*, by Dr. JOHN WOLCOT (olim Peter Pindar, esq.) who, at the age of fourscore, has recalled to memory the age of the Lousiad. The motto indicates the resurrection of the veteran poet, after a silence of several years;—

“I, who dropp'd the Muse's quill,
And long had left the Aonian hill,
Start from my slumber with my wonted might;

To scourge a monarch of the East,
For mocking monarchs of the West,
A lord of Britain, and advent'rous knight.”

An advertisement annexed announces a lyric epistle to Lord Amherst and Sir George Staunton, by the same venerable and inimitable bard.

It is to be regretted that men of genius should ever mistake the path in

which nature has qualified them to walk with grace and freedom. This appears to have been the case with Mr. MATTHEW, whose abilities, splendid as they undoubtedly are, seem fitted rather for the displays of poetic enchantment, and the reveries of a magnificent imagination, than for the portraiture of dramatic substantialities, or the creation of natural character. MANUEL is a beautiful and highly-coloured poem, of which the conceptions are vigorous, and the language is eloquent; but which, we apprehend, will scarcely become a theatrical favorite, inasmuch as its declamatory tone and deficiency of incident, which, in the closet, might be overlooked, give to this last offspring of Mr. Mathurin's Muse, a character too remote from, and foreign to, the varied action and brief diction required by the genius of the drama.

We learn that at Stonyhurst, near Preston, the Order of the *Jesuits* has, for thirty years past, possessed a spacious College, which is exclusively a College of *Jesuits*. The studies at this place are conducted upon the same system, and to the same extent, as at the Catholic Universities abroad; and there are regular professors in divinity, mathematics, philosophy, astronomy, &c. The College is capable of containing at least 400 or 500 pupils, independent of professors; &c.!

In the Transactions of Public Societies we have added to the facts which we published in vol. 30. p. 154, and subsequently, in regard to the art of LITHOGRAPHY, or engraving on stone, which seems at length to have excited much attention. Some specimens of small portraits have been sent to us from Paris, equal to many etchings of Hollar; and this branch of art seems capable of several species of useful graphic representation. Its great advantages are the comparatively slight labour which attends the production of the subject on the stone, and the durability in taking impressions. The first process is performed with the facility of a pencil-drawing, and consequently as good an effect is produced in three or four hours as in three or four days on copper or wood; and, in taking impressions, we understand, the twenty-thousandth is as good as the twentieth, though a copper-plate must for that

number be renewed seven or eight times. The art of Lithography is therefore a very important one, and is likely to extend, beyond calculation, the sphere and influence of the fine arts. The chief use that has hitherto been made of Lithography in England has been to multiply manuscripts; and in this way it has saved much manual labour at the admiralty, post-office, and other establishments, and in them has superseded the use of copying machines. We learn, however, that Mr ACKERMANN, of the Strand, proposes to devote a work especially to the Lithographic art, as a means of introducing it to the English people; and, as soon as any of its professors have established themselves in London, we propose to give some specimens in the Monthly Magazine.

While on the subject of art, we cannot, in justice, omit to raise the public expectations in regard to a work, which we have already announced, by Mr. WILLIAM SAVAGE, on decorative or ornamental printing, of which we have seen some very striking specimens. This art was first announced at Berlin by M. GUKITZ, an engraver on wood, who, by producing a separate block for the parts of each tint and colour in his original, contrived to produce prints from engravings in wood which exactly resembled highly-finished drawings. Such is the plan of Mr. Savage, but he is carrying this process to greater perfection than the German artist. As an example, we have seen a print worked off by him in brown tints, which, without explanation, would be mistaken for a tasteful drawing, or a superior print in aquatinta. In truth it is printed from six blocks, engraved by Mr. BRANSTON, each of which impresses but a single set of tints; and each set being separately and exactly laid over the other, produces an ultimate effect which is truly surprising. It is the promise of this invention, that a printer can, by its means, produce three hundred such drawings in a day; and that the blocks from which they are taken will produce above a hundred thousand impressions, the last as good as the first; whereas, a draughtsman could not, with the hand, produce above half-a-dozen in a day; and an aquatint plate, which might also take off three hun-

dred, would require to be renewed after every day's work. By means, therefore, of one or both of these arts of lithography, or multiplied blocks, the lovers of illustrated books may speedily expect to be gratified at a very moderate expense. *Mon. Mag.*

BONAPARTE'S LIFE BY HIMSELF.

From the Monthly Mag. for May, 1817.

In our last No. we inserted at length the interesting publication of M. SANTINI,* on the subject of the Ostracism of Napoleon by the European legitimates; and we exposed the fraud which was attempted to be committed by the publication of some pretended memoirs, said to have arrived in an unknown manner from St. Helena. Our curiosity on the subject, and a desire to gratify that of our readers, led us subsequently to seek an interview with M. Santini; which having obtained, we learnt from him many additional particulars of the treatment of his master, which we forbear, for the present, to publish. But, in our proper business as purveyors of literary intelligence, we think it proper to state, that the rumour is not fabulous which describes Napoleon as being engaged in writing Memoirs of his own Life and Times. We collected from M. Santini, that, if the work in question ever escape the Argus-eyes of Napoleon's gaolers, and if it be not part of the legitimate-policy to prevent its appearance, it will be more extensive in bulk than has hitherto been supposed. It was finished down to the end of the Egyptian expedition when M. Santini left St. Helena: but its connected progress was suspended at that era by the impediments which, it is said, have been opposed to the procuring of printed documents from France and England, particularly of a set of the author's military bulletins, and of the *Moniteur*. As far as it is written, every year makes a large manuscript volume, and it may be expected, if it be ever allowed to appear, to extend to EIGHT OR TEN PRINTED VOLUMES IN QUARTO. Napoleon, who it seems does not choose to run the hazard of being fired at by the centries who are stationed within a certain range of his wretched habitation, nor to ride out attended by a sort of subal-

tern gaoler or turnkey, in general keeps the house, and chiefly employs himself in writing or dictating these memoirs to M. las Casas, M. de Montholon, or marshal Bertrand. Having learnt these particulars in regard to a work which cannot fail to interest the curiosity of this age and of all posterity, we were led to hope that it was possible that no impediment might be opposed to its publication by the ministers of the regent; and, viewing it chiefly as an affair of business, and partly as lovers of truth and justice, we determined to avail ourselves of the chance of a respectful letter to that minister who takes on himself the honour and the responsibility of managing this business. We subjoin a copy of our letter, with the answer, rejoinder, and replication, for the information of our readers and the public.

Letter from sir Richard Phillips to earl Bathurst, secretary of state for the Colonial Department, &c. &c.

MR. LORD, I have been credibly informed that the late emperor Napoleon has been for some time past engaged in writing annals of his eventful life; and it has appeared to me to be a suitable speculation in which, as a publisher, to engage as an affair of business. It is however necessary that I should be able to communicate with the author on the subject, and I therefore take the liberty to inquire whether, if I address a letter under cover to your lordship's care, it will be forwarded to him at St. Helena?

Having read in the newspapers your lordship's late speech in the house of Lords, I am of course duly sensible of the delicacy of making this request, and aware that I ought to seek nothing of your lordship on this subject, which is inconsistent with the line of policy adopted by the British government. My letter, therefore, my lord, would be open, and would be strictly limited to a proposal in regard to the printing and publishing of the work in question, with fidelity and promptitude. I should also request that all communication with me should be made in the usual forms through your lordship.

I conceive, my lord, that you will feel that such a work, in its close connexion with the eventful history of the times, is an object of considerable literary interest; and that its publication cannot fail to excite a lively curiosity,

* The greater portion of Mr. Santini's pamphlet has been published in the American Newspapers.

as well in this age as in posterity. As materials of history, it could be inferior to no ancient or modern production, and in that view it lays claim to my notice, and will, I hope, entitle this application to the respect of your lordship.

I have the honour to be, my lord, your most obedient humble servant.

March 29, 1817. R. PHILLIPS.

Reply of Henry Goulburn, esq. Under-Secretary of State, etc.

Downing street; April 2, 1817.

Sir, I am directed by lord Bathurst to acknowledge the receipt this day of your letter of the 29th ultimo, requesting permission to address a letter either to general Bonaparte or to general Bertrand, on the subject of publishing a work, in which you have been informed that the former is engaged; and to acquaint you that, before giving any reply to your letter, lord Bathurst is desirous of being informed whether you have received any communication, either from general Bonaparte, or from any person authorised by him to treat with you, on the subject of such a publication.

I am, sir,

Your obedient servant,

HENRY GOULBURN.

Sir Richard Phillips, knt.

Sir Richard Phillips to Henry Goulburn, esq. Under-Secretary of State, etc.

Sir, If you will do me the honour to reconsider my letter to earl Bathurst, you will perceive that I act merely on the information that the literary and historical work in question is in course of preparation; and that, as a man of business, I am anxious, on my own motion, to open a negociation for the publication of it.

Under other circumstances I should have felt no hesitation in addressing the author, or his representative, directly on the subject; but the actual situation of this author renders it necessary that my communication be made through earl Bathurst; and it was the object of my letter to learn whether an overture, in that form and manner, would be allowed to be made. I am, sir,

Your obedient servant,

April, 4, 1817. R. PHILLIPS.

Henry Goulburn, esq. etc. etc. to Sir Richard Phillips.

Colonial office; April 11, 1817.

Sir, I have to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 4th instant, referring to a former letter, and stating your desire to open a negociation for the publication of a literary and historical work, which you have understood to be in preparation by general Bonaparte, or by one of his suite; and, having laid the same before earl Bathurst, I have received directions to acquaint you that, under the circumstances stated, his lordship must decline being the medium of forwarding an application to this effect, or of authorizing such a communication being transmitted to general Bonaparte, or to any of his followers.

I am, sir,

Your obedient servant.

HENRY GOULBURN.

To Sir Richard Phillips, knt.

This answer, which had been seven days under consideration, appears to be conclusive in regard to the intentions of the present ministry; and it is therefore probable that, as long as they continue to hold their power, no overtures can be made which will lead to the transmission of this manuscript to Europe, and to its consequent publication. Its arrival in 'an unknown manner,' even if it were trusted to any chance of that kind, is impracticable; for although M. Santini contrived to bring away the manuscript of the count de Montholon's Letter, yet he was strictly searched, and even compelled to take off his clothes, before he was suffered to leave the island. The noble and magnanimous spirit of the emperor of Russia will probably correct these practices, and, if so, the manuscript may perhaps be confided to the honour of the Russian commissioner. To us it does not appear that any just or respectable sentiment can interpose to prevent the publication of these materials of history, for no suppressions or system of misrepresentations can avert the solemn indictment which time is preparing against the wicked authors of the late devastating wars.

Reportes of Marshal Villars, governor of Provence in the reign of Louis XIV.

MARSHAL VILLARS, upon the death of the Duke de Vendome, in Louis the

XIV.'s time, was made governor of Provence in his room; and when the marshal went to take possession of his new government, the deputies of the province made him the usual present of a purse full of louis d'ors; but the person who had the honour to present it, said to him, "Here, my lord, is such another purse as that we gave the Duke de Vendôme, when, like you, he came to be our governor; but the prince, after accepting it as a testimony of our regard to him, very generously returned it."—"Ah!" said Marshal Villars, squeezing the purse into his pocket, "Monieur Vendôme was a surprising man; he has not left his fellow behind him."

Europ. Mag.

We learn from a late traveller in Egypt, that a Dongolese horse had been sold at Cairo, at a price equal to a thousand guineas sterling. Bruce describes the horses of Dongola as the most perfect in the world. "At Halfaia and Gerri begins that noble race of horses justly celebrated all over the world. They are the breed introduced here at the Saracen conquest, and have been preserved unmixed to this day. They seem to be a distinct species from the Arabian horse such as I have seen in the plains of Arabia Deserta, south of Palmyra and Damascus, where I take the most excellent of the Arabian breed to be in the tribes of Mowalli and Anecy, which is about lat. 36°. Whilst Dongola, and the dry country near it, seems to be the centre of excellence for this noble animal; so that the bounds within which the horse is in its greatest perfection seem to be between that lat. 30 and 36, and between long. 30 east

from Greenwich, to the banks of the Euphrates. To this extent Fahrenheit's thermometer is never below 50 in the night, or 80 in the day, though it may rise to 120 at noon in the shade, at which point horses are not affected by the heat, but will breed as they do at Halfaia and Dongola. They are," he adds, "entirely different from the Arabian; but if beautiful and symmetrical parts, great size and strength, the most agile, nervous, and elastic movements, great endurance of fatigue, docility of temper, and seeming attachment to man, beyond any other animal, can promise any thing for a stallion, the Nubian is above all comparison, the most eligible in the world. The horses of Halfaia and Gerri do not arrive at the size of those in Dongola, where few are lower than sixteen hands. They are black or white, but a vast proportion of the former to the latter. I never saw the colour we call grey, that is dappled; but there are some bright bays, or inclining to sorrel. They are all kept monstrously fat upon dora, eating nothing green but the short roots of grass, found by the side of the Nile, after the sun has withered it. This they dig out where it is covered with earth, and appears blanched, which they lay in small heaps once a day on the ground before them. They are tethered by the fetlock joint of the fore leg with a very soft cotton rope, made with a loop and large button. They eat and drink with a bridle in their mouth." The traveller relates also the superior good qualities of the horse of Shakh Adalam, not quite four years old, and full sixteen hands high.

Asiatic Jour.

Domestic Literature.

A Sketch of the Life, Last Sickness, and Death of Mrs. Mary Jane Grovenor; left among the Papers of the late Hon. Thomas P. Grovenor. Baltimore; published by Coale & Maxwell. 1817.

THE author of this little volume was born in the town of Pomfret in the State of Connecticut, was educated at Yale College, and was formerly 'settled in the practice of the law,' in the city of Hudson, in the State of New York. His popularity as a man, and his reputation as an eloquent pleader, procured him an election to Congress from the district in which he resided. In the le-

gislation of the nation he was a fluent, argumentative speaker, of engaging manners; and a politician, who could candidly express his judgment, and act in conformity with it, without trembling to appear at different times, when he thought the principles of the party to which he was decidedly attached required it, in opposition to his friends. While a representative in Congress, he became acquainted with the amiable lady of whom he has given a sketch; was united to her in March, 1815, in the most intimate of all human relations; and, selecting a new place of residence, became a distinguished mem-

ber of the bar in Baltimore. Their prospects were enchanting; and the genius of worldly happiness seemed just ready to take the interesting pair under her peculiar protection. But death rushed between, and separated them from all their schemes and anticipations of felicity. The lovely woman departed this life on the fourth day of December, 1816, and her husband followed on the twenty-fourth of April, 1817, in the thirty-eighth year of his age.

Of the author of this little book, and of the work itself, Bishop Kemp, of Baltimore, has expressed his sentiments in words which we quote with approbation.

‘It certainly will be viewed as a rare, and highly interesting piece. An affectionate husband delineating the character of a beloved wife, tracing her religious progress through a series of disease rapidly advancing towards dissolution; marking her struggles to overcome the world and all its vanities; treasuring up every pious expression; and distinguishing the various steps by which she advanced to that confidence and love, which cast out fear; this is a work in which no heart can fail to take a deep concern. Here is portrayed, with a masterly hand, the influence of religion and the triumph of faith; here is exhibited that elevation of soul, which resignation to the will of God, and confidence in the atonement of a Redeemer, alone can beget. When we viewed Mr. Grosvenor, as a man of talents, he secured our esteem. When we contemplated him as a distinguished statesman, standing in the foremost rank of politicians, he excited our admiration. But now when we follow him to retirement, and see the effusions of his heart, after the loss of a beloved wife; when we perceive the tenderest sensibilities mingling with a high degree of religious affection; he gains our love; his character requires a new cast, and becomes highly interesting; it strengthens the sentiment that without religion no character can be complete, nor any human being altogether happy.’

It was to have been expected, that, in the agony of his grief, Mr. Grosvenor should have written with a trembling hand; and that his performance should be characterized by such inequalities, as are natural to a man of strong mind; when experiencing alternately the lan-

guor of exhausted feeling, and the electric flow of thoughts, that for a moment banish by their brightness, all the blackness of the tempest howling around him, and through the clouds of sorrow open a passage to the heavens. He commences in an unusual strain; and exhibits his own contemplations, we should suppose, in his secret chamber, after having returned from the interment. Every man would feel under such circumstances; but every man could not write like Mr. Grosvenor.

‘It has pleased the Almighty Father to remove from this world, in the morning of her life, this young and lovely woman.

“The ways of the Almighty are past finding out.”—

“As a man chasteneth his son, so the Lord our God chasteneth us, that he may humble us and prove us, to do us good at our latter end.”

‘On our knees, then, let us devoutly kiss the hand that presses us down, saying, “The Lord gave and the Lord hath taken away; blessed be the name of the Lord.”

‘Yet on her interesting life, on the pious resignation which accompanied her protracted sickness, on the firm hope, and even triumphant Christian confidence, with which she met the King of Terrors, the mind lingers with melancholy delight, mingled with emotions of the keenest anguish for her loss. A short sketch of that life, that sickness, and that death, may solace her surviving friends and do justice to her memory—O thou God of all Grace, vouchsafe that the example here displayed may encourage the strong in faith to persevere, may sustain the weak in a course of piety, and lure the infidel from his hopeless wanderings to the path of faith, hope, and happiness which the religion of Christ points out to the miserable children of mortality!’

Fifteen pages follow the close of this eloquent introduction, which are not remarkable for their elegance, or the expression of tender emotions. They contain, however, a history of Mrs. Grosvenor’s childhood and youth, with some judicious reflections about worldly amusements, in speaking of which, the writer is not at all times perfectly consistent with himself. The bereaved husband writes like a man of the world becoming serious, whose mind is divided

between his former sentiments, and his newly acquired religious opinions. He was not a professed theologian; and this will excuse a little inaccuracy, the subject of which appertains equally to botany and divinity. He says, of her early afflictions, 'we may indulge the belief, that in this solitary and sorrowful period, were sown those seeds of grace, which, though buried for a season, sprouted forth, and in after years flourished like the green bay tree, and finally produced the richest fruits of humility, charity, and vital piety.' p. 18. He could not have been aware of the fact, that the *green bay tree* never produces any fruit, and that although it widely extends itself, yet, it is for the destruction of all vegetation around it, by the deathful influences of its leaves. He could not have known that the Scriptures compare none but the wicked to this tree. 'I have seen the wicked in great power, and spreading himself like a green bay tree;' (Psalm xxxvii. 35.) for the destruction of all around him. It would better have suited the nature of the case, had our author compared his partner to the *palm tree* 'planted by the rivers of water, that bringeth forth his fruit in his season: his leaf also shall not wither.' Ps. i. 3. Of this tree, it is a literal truth, that it never sheds its leaves.

On the 29th page commences one of the finest strains of our author. It must please every reader.

'Her character as a wife is known but to one in this world.

'She was capable of that deep, generous, self devoting sentiment, which, in retirement, springs amid mutual charities and mutual pursuits, links itself with every interest of life, and twines itself even with hopes of immortal happiness. She was a wife but nine months, five of which were passed in sickness, and in suffering. But if the tenderest sensibility of soul, the purest and warmest heart, a sound judgment, a disposition sweet and placid, a lively and playful wit, a firm, constant, self devoting attachment, knowledge various and elegant, a delicacy which almost shrunk from observation, and enthusiastick love of domestic life, a deep and solemn sense of religion; a knowledge of all her duties, and a soul intent upon their

full performance could render the conjugal state happy; her husband must have been happy. He was happy while she enjoyed health; he was tortured by her sickness and agonies.

'O! may the same Almighty hand, which has so heavily pressed him to the earth, raise him from the death of sin, enable him to imitate his beloved wife in the hour of sickness and of death, and finally join her again in those celestial mansions where there is no more sickness or pain.'

From the thirty-third to the forty-second page, we have a specimen of the admirably descriptive powers of Mr. Grosvenor. The history of the commencement of the pulmonary disease, which terminated his partner's career, excites a lively interest in the mournful scene. We should extract several pages for the gratification of our readers, did we not deem it a sort of literary robbery to take so much from so small a volume as this.

To the Sketch is added an Appendix, which contains a well written, but brief notice of Mr. Grosvenor.

KIRK and MERCEIN of New York have just published, in a handsome octavo volume, *Colden's Life of Robert Fulton, Esq.*, with a portrait. 'The profits arising from the sale of this work, are to be appropriated to the fund for erecting a statue to the memory of the late lamented Mr. Fulton, under the direction of the Literary and Philosophical Society.

BOTANY.

M. CAREY and SON have issued proposals for publishing by subscription, a work, entitled *Vegetable Materia Medica of the United States; or Medical Botany*: containing a botanical, general, and medical history of medicinal plants, indigenous to the United States; illustrated by coloured engravings, made after original drawings from nature, done by the author. By William P. C. Barton, M. D. Professor of Botany in the university of Pennsylvania, &c. It will be published in eight quarto numbers, each containing six plates, coloured according to nature, and about 60 pages of letter press.—Price three dollars a number.

THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1817.

ART. I.—*The Life of ROBERT FULTON, by his friend Cadwallader D. Colden. Read before the Literary and Philosophical Society of New York. 1817. p. 371.*

SOME one has observed, that mankind respect most and reward best, *first* those who murder and destroy them; *secondly* those who blind their understandings and cheat them; *thirdly* those who amuse them; *last and least*, those who endeavour to instruct and benefit them. In this class must be included authors and projectors; appellations that associate in their common acceptance, a portion of pity mixed with contempt.

Fulton ranked among the class last enumerated. His life was spent in devising the means of promoting the comfort and facilitating the intercourse of civilized life, and counteracting the evils of modern warfare. In proportion as he succeeded in demonstrating the practicability of his plans, he gave birth to obloquy and opposition. During the last years of his life his plans of public utility were greatly interrupted. He was forced to protect himself against men who speculated on his ideas: who were ready to deprive him of the honour, and to rob him of the profit of those inventions, by which his fellow citizens had been so much benefitted, and the reputation of his native country so much promoted.*

The present life of Fulton by Mr. Colden, is a plain, unaffected, unexaggerated account of what Fulton did and proposed to do for the benefit of his country and of mankind. It is neither prolix nor pompous; it does not offend by any over-strained panegyric, nor does it omit any part of Fulton's character, performances, or projects, that the public is interested in knowing. It is creditable to the very useful man concerning whom it is written, and to the biographer who writes it.

Robert Fulton, the subject of the present memoir, was the third of five children born of Robert and Mary Fulton. His father was of Kilkenny in Ireland; his mother was also of Irish descent. There are two countries in Europe, insignificant in point of popula-

* The Chevalier Cadet de Gassicourt in a letter from Paris, January, 1817, proposing the substitution of the hydraulic-press to the force of steam, as a moving power to propel vessels, observes that "Steam Boats offer such great advantages to commerce, that England, France, and America with one accord proclaim the glory of Fulton." *Month. Mag.* May, 1817 p. 299.

tion and extent, that have furnished more examples of brilliant intellect, and useful knowledge, than nations of ten times their size and number. Ireland may challenge Europe for her proportion of men of genius, and the petty territory of Sweden has done more towards chemistry and natural history than any single nation in that quarter of the globe. It is not easy to defend the practice of characterising masses of men by a few individual instances, but it is hardly possible to withhold our assent to permanent traits of character ascribable to nations, and it is gratifying to ascribe them when they are so honourable.

Fulton was born at little Britain in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, in the year 1765: his father died in 1768, leaving little patrimony to his children. Robert Fulton the son, was attached in his youth to drawing and painting, and from his earnings and savings in this profession between his 17th and 22nd year, he purchased a small farm in Washington county, Pennsylvania, on which he settled his mother; who remained on it till her death in 1799, thirteen years. Fulton, therefore, commenced his career of life, by sacrificing the profits of his earliest exertions to make his surviving parent comfortable and independent. This was a commencement of excellent augury.

Probably, much of Fulton's success in his plans, depended on the ease with which he was able to express his ideas on paper by means of his pencil. Drawing, is the first acquirement necessary to that most useful and important character, a civil engineer: next to that is a perfect readiness in all arithmetical and mathematical calculations, particularly of the higher mathematics; next chemistry and natural philosophy. It is thus that Smeaton, and Watt, and Woolfe and Clegg, have been made in England; men, who when weighed in the balances of public utility against the monarch and the ministry, the peers and the commons of the parliament of that country, would cause the scale of the latter to kick the beam. It is not too much to say that the duke of Bridgewater, Boulton and Watt, Wedgwood, and Bentley, and sir Richard Arkwright have been worth to their native country, *a hundred millions of pounds sterling*. We shall have no such men here, till more time is allowed to education, than the superficial manners of the present day deems necessary in this country—till boys are permitted to remain boys until nature and education shall make men of them. It was by pursuing with steady attention his mathematical studies which he found absolutely necessary to his success, and by his acquirements in physical science, that Fulton himself was enabled to bring his native talents so usefully into play: for genius uneducated and unimproved, is often a nuisance, and seldom of value, either to its owner, or mankind.

Soon after he had settled his mother, he set out for England to study painting under Mr. West. But while in that country, in 1793, he became acquainted with the duke of Bridgewater and lord Stanhope, and turned his attention toward the construction and the use of navigable canals; a scheme, to which the duke of Bridge-

water in particular had dedicated the whole of his ample fortune, and useful life.

Of all the means of facilitating internal commerce and mutual intercourse between the inhabitants of the same country, canals are the most efficient: and where heavy materials are to be transported from one place to another, such as ores, iron machinery, limestone, coals, lumber, and articles of that description, they become indispensable to any high degree of national prosperity. But it is very doubtful whether the mere farming produce of a district, would pay interest for the capital expended in a canal, after supporting the expense of keeping it in good order. In this country, however, there are other motives for canals, than merely the facilitating of intercourse in time of peace. A series of canals parallel to our sea coast or nearly so, is a *war-measure* of the very last importance to our interest. Yet the easy, obvious communication between the Chesapeake and the Delaware, so often urged, so long meditated, so manifestly useful in case of an enemy's fleet scouring our coasts, is hardly talked of. The projected canal in New-York state, which if it ever be finished will owe its existence to De Witt Clinton, may be considered in the same point of view; and will be so considered by all who are aware of the enormous expense incurred during the last war in the transportation of heavy articles to the New-York frontier. A numerous population, great internal commerce, and canals, go hand in hand: they mutually sustain each other. China and Holland are examples, and Great Britain has wisely followed these examples.* Readers are not aware that even in Great Britain the internal commerce of the country, independent of mere agriculture, is at least eight times the amount of the external, even calculating this last at the enormous amount of 1816, viz. about fifty-one million sterling; but if the growth and manufacture of agricultural articles be taken into account it is far more. In fact, external commerce is greatly over-rated. What is the profit upon an export of fifty million at fifteen per cent.? seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds. What is this compared to forty-five million of cultivated acres in England producing the average value of fifteen bushels of wheat per acre? The boast of external commerce, is annihilated at once by considerations such as these. One day of harvest sunshine instead of rain, would produce an additional value, beyond the whole gross amount of export or of import in Great Britain.

But if canals are valuable in the nations of Europe, where the extent of territory is so small, that every part of a kingdom may be considered practically as under the same climate, and bearing similar articles of territorial produce, how much more valuable will they become in this country, where the range of climate almost supercedes the necessity of foreign commerce.

* One of the earliest, and it is believed one of the most efficacious advocates of the canal system is Mr. Brooke, author of that singular novel the "Fool of Quality," wherein Mr. Meekly is brought forward in favour of inland navigation.

Fulton, who was in all his proposals a practical man, recommended small canals and narrow boats. He was aware that canals of this description, easily made, cheaply made, and speedily made, were best calculated to afford an early interest for the capital expended in constructing them. In Pennsylvania, what a lesson has the extravagance of our turnpike roads afforded: monied men sickened at the sight of a subscription list to a new turnpike; while the injudicious waste of money on the Schuylkill canal, and the obstacles to the Chesapeake and Delaware canal, appear almost insuperable bars to their completion. This latter canal, it is the duty of the federal government to make at the expense of the United States; for so complete a measure of defensive warfare can hardly be imagined. But whenever this measure shall come to be discussed in congress, the verbose objections, the ignorance that will be displayed upon the question, and the protracted debates upon a proposal of the first necessity, and in itself too obviously expedient to require a moment's discussion, will probably cost the nation half as much as it would require to complete the canal from beginning to end.

Fulton's treatise on canals ought to be republished. The treatises on this subject published in England, are more calculated for civil engineers than for the public at large. What we want here is something to shew that canals can be constructed *cheaply* and *profitably*. It is really dreadful on a market day in the city of Philadelphia, to see the capital expended in teams, and to consider the prodigious expense of maintaining them, when nine-tenths of the labour might be performed by canals, or by steam waggons.*

Fulton took out a patent for his peculiar improvements in the construction of canals, in England; and he went over to France for the purpose of doing the same there. While he was there, he wrote several letters, apparently intended for publication, on subjects of political economy, in favour of free trade, and showing the effect in society, comparatively, of the class of men who are *producers*, and those who are merely *idlers*; the drones of the hive, *fruges consumere nati*. The details of his reflections we know not, for the compositions do not appear to have been published. The same idea, however, has been lately taken up by a late French author,† who considers society divided as into two grand periods: the *ancient*, wherein each nation sought to enrich and aggrandize itself at the expense of its neighbour, by invasion and plunder. Under this system (which was that of Greece and Rome, so much and so foolishly vaunted) the idlers—the non-producers—monarchs, nobles, the military and the priesthood, were numerous: industry was confined to slaves, or to the lowest classes of society, and deemed dishonourable, and disreputable. War was the favourite and fashionable pursuit; and warriors were ranked among their di-

* There is a coal-mine, four miles from Halifax in Yorkshire (England). A waggon containing a steam-engine, drags after it on an iron rail-way, at the rate of four miles per hour, twenty-two waggons, each containing three tons of coals.

† M. Compté in his *Censeur*. Essay the first.

virtues. In such a state of things *virtue* might well signify both valour, and good conduct. Under this system, civilization could not permanently advance; the rights of men and of citizens were such only as a proud and warlike class of society, supported by a priesthood, might indulgently allow; the properties and persons of weaker nations were seized on and converted to the use of the conquerors; and the vanquished were made slaves.

Such are the glorious times of Greece and Rome, whose detestable morals, manners, and maxims, have been the theme of ignorant panegyric for ages past. This was the period of incivilized society. The *modern* system of civilization proceeds on the endeavour to make every member of society a producer, by the habitual exertion of some useful kind of industry: to gain by the prosperity, not by the misery of neighbouring nations: by barter, and not by plunder: to stimulate industry abroad for this purpose, as well as at home: to lessen as far as possible the number of drones in the hive, to diminish the class of idlers and non-producers: to diminish also as far as possible, all necessity for naval and military systems: and generally, to abolish as far as possible, all orders of men, who have no means of living but on the industry of the producing class.

It is upon this ground in particular, that the French author in question, finds fault with Buonaparte and his system; who brought back the ancient maxims of war, rapine and plunder; who filled the country with swarms of idle soldiery; and established as a permanent tax upon the people, a devouring military aristocracy; an imperial court, an imperial army, an imperial priesthood, imperial musicians, dramatists, historians, orators, poets, and panegyrists, whose occupation was to varnish over the existing order of things, and to worship, with blasphemous adulation, the powers that be. It was indeed a discovery in this country of far more importance at the time, than any even of Fulton's, that it was possible for a people to govern themselves and be happy 'without bishops, without nobles, without kings.'

By what arguments Fulton supported his favourite doctrine of *free trade*, we know not, till his works shall be published, if this should ever be: but in the present state of things, it should seem as if we were compelled in this country into the measure of protecting regulations, in self defence against those nations whose conduct calls upon us to mete unto others, the measures dealt out to ourselves. The despotic conduct of Great Britain upon the ocean, and the high tone assumed by her late negotiators in Europe upon that subject, may give rise to another armed neutrality, with Russia as before at the head of it: there is good reason to believe that the measure is even now meditated; but whenever *free trade* is adopted as a maxim among the European powers, or whenever it may be declared as a position of the law of nature and nations that the flag shall protect the property, it will be a theoretical declaration only, as it was under the former armed neutrality: the strongest naval power will use that power in time of war against the neutrals

who cannot protect themselves; nor will any thing be sufficient to establish the maxims in practice, but some easy, cheap, speedy and effectual means of destroying a vessel of war. Whoever shall make and establish such a discovery, will be ranked deservedly as among the greatest benefactors of the human race: a train of reflection somewhat of this kind, induced Fulton to turn his attention, about the close of the year 1797, to submarine navigation, and torpedo war.

It is likely, that the ingenious and nearly successful attempt of Mr. Bushnel to destroy the English fleet, so harmoniously commemorated in *the battle of the kegs*, suggested the idea of submarine navigation with a similar view, to Mr. Fulton. Mr. Colden gives a pretty full history of Mr. Fulton's attempts to attack ships by diving boats and torpedoes; and of his machine to cut cables under water. The account thus given by Mr. Colden, fully sanctions the opinion, that if the plans were pursued with proper spirit, and the trifling expense attending them borne by government, until time and opportunity be given to gain experience, and to overcome the difficulties from which no new experiment is ever free, the plan would succeed; and that, to the utmost extent of Fulton's calculations. One principal difficulty he had overcome sometime before his decease by the assistance of a chemical friend in New York, well able to render him this kind of assistance; that is, the difficulty of ensuring the communication of fire to the chamber for reservoir of powder, when the lock was struck; we were present at some of those experiments, and know that the means employed were competent to the end proposed. But Fulton was a projector: he belonged to no political party: he had no political influence: he was merely a man of science, ardent in pursuit of schemes for the public good, which promised no benefit to influential individuals: he was listened to, and feebly encouraged: a projector is not a favourite character, and his plans fell through. The report of commodore Rodgers against them, was not warranted by the experiment that occasioned it. Fulton had explained exactly and minutely to the commodore, the whole of his plan, and all the means proposed to be taken to blow up the *Argus*, a vessel destined to the experiment. Commodore Rodgers having carefully made himself master of all Fulton's plans and descriptions, and of all the particulars of his intended attack with a boat and eight men, so fortified the *Argus*, that the boat could not approach it. Fulton not apprized of this—not instructed in the means of defence proposed to be adopted—taken unawares, retreated from the attack, and commodore Rodgers reported the whole of the plan impracticable. Now, it was sufficient to show its practicability, that commodore Rodgers after being minutely instructed by Fulton himself, should be obliged to resort to these troublesome and expensive precautions; which although they were sufficient to repel the attack of one torpedo boat, would have been absolutely nugatory against half a dozen. In fact, it is too much to expect from naval commanders that they should give their approbation to a plan calcu-

lated to destroy a naval force with certainty; nor are these gentlemen proper persons to be appointed judges of such an experiment. Yet under all these disadvantages, the report of commodore Rodgers stood alone. But the time will yet come when the experiment will again be made, and perhaps with all the effect that Fulton expected.

Mr. Colden is aware of the objections that have been made to Fulton on account of his applying to the executive of France and England to promote the plan of torpedo warfare. It is probable that Fulton having but one object in view, the destruction of that dreadful machine, a ship of war, which carries death and devastation to the remotest quarters of the globe, cared little whether the expense of his experiments were defrayed by France, Great Britain, or America: his object at first was not national, but meant for the promotion of the peace of the world. When America became involved in the European contests, the experiment became of more importance to his native country than to any other; and here he proposed and endeavoured to pursue it to its full effect.

We come now to that project of Fulton's which has conferred the highest honour on his name, and wherein no room is left to dispute the success of it: navigation by means of steam. This he proposed in a letter to lord Stanhope, dated 30th September, 1793, whose reply acknowledging the receipt of the letter of that date, is dated 7th October 1794. Some mistake in the trial before the legislature of New Jersey as to a copy of Fulton's letter to lord Stanhope, makes these dates worth remembering. That mistake is fully and satisfactorily cleared up by Mr. Colden, so that no doubt can now remain on the subject.

In the article steam boats in Rees's Encyclopædia, an article drawn up with great ability, the history of steam boat navigation, is given with such determined negligence of American claims upon this invention, that it can only be paralleled by the disgraceful want of notice of Mr. Hare's and M'Cloud's blow pipes in the accounts given of Dr. Clarke's pretended discoveries. Such conduct confers no credit on English fairness or veracity. But what credit can be given to British relations, after perusing the public inscriptions on the monuments of general Ross and sir Peter Parker! documents, purposely calculated to mislead the future historian, and which set veracity at utter defiance. To such relations we can apply no other observation than the motto to Godwin's St. Leon. The account in Rees's compilation is substantially as follows.

Captain Savary suggested the application of steam boats to ships in 1702.

Mr. Jonathan Hull, in 1736, took out a patent for towing vessels into harbour by means of a boat with paddles worked by steam: but nothing was done.

Mr. Buchanan in his treatise on propelling vessels, says that Mr. Millar of Dalwinson first actually tried to move vessels by steam. His was a double vessel moved by paddles placed in the middle: the experiment did not answer.

In 1795 lord Stanhope constructed a vessel which was tried in Greenland dock; moved by duck-feet paddles at the sides. This experiment came to nothing.

In 1801 Mr. Symington tried a vessel propelled by steam in the Forth and Clyde Canal: but this was laid aside. Mr. Symington's steam boat is slightly described in the Journals of the Royal Institute for 1803. His boat is said to have travelled at the rate of two and a half miles per hour. Mr. Symington is said by Dr. Rees to have used these boats in America before Mr. Fulton's successful attempts in 1807. This by the way is the first intimation we have had in America of Mr. Symington or his experiments. It would have been well to have noticed a few more particulars of this gentleman's attempt in this country, where he seems at present to be a perfect stranger.

Then Mr. Fulton is slightly mentioned as having succeeded with steam boats in 1807: and it is said that they were used on the Clyde canal in 1812. Of Mr. Fitch and Mr. Rumsey no notice is taken; though many persons were present in Mr. Rumsey's boat when it was worked on the *Thames* at London at the rate of three miles per hour; and therefore must have been well known to English engineers. It is very commendable for a writer to be patriotic and national, but it does not justify either the *suppressio veri*, or the *suggestio falsi*.

This account should be compared with Mr. Colden's from page 126 to page 138.

The experiments of Mr. Fitch in America, and of Mr. Rumsey at London were a few years previous to those of lord Stanhope. Whatever pretensions these gentlemen might have had, they were abandoned; so completely, that Mr. Latrobe, one of our most intelligent engineers, stated his opinion to the American Philosophical Society in 1803, that the plan of propelling vessels by means of steam was impracticable. One general fact, then, is indubitable.

Until Fulton undertook to navigate vessels by means of steam, no person in Europe or America who had attempted it, had succeeded in the attempt for any practical or useful purpose.

Fulton never pretended to have invented the steam engine he used, or any part of it. Mr. Barlow lent him the money to purchase that engine from Boulton and Watt, with which he made his first successful experiment. The question is not, who first proposed to navigate by steam, but who first succeeded in so doing, and enabled others to succeed. In the summer of 1794 the writer of this article was at Birmingham, where Mr. Watt the elder, showed him a field of buckwheat, put in by Mr. Cooke's drill plow; and observed that the time would soon arrive when the operation of plowing would be performed by steam. Surely Mr. Watt would not be considered as the inventor of such an operation for merely suggesting that it might be done! He only would deserve the honour and the profit of the experiment, who by means of a well-considered theory, verified by trial, should render the method practicable to the public at large. Fulton did this with respect to steam navigation. It was never done by any person who had tried to do it, before him.

Captain Savary made nothing of it in 1702, nor Mr. Hall in 1736, nor the Abbé Arnal in 1781. Mr. Millar of Dalwinson abandoned it; so did Mr. Fitch in this country, whose experiment on the Delaware was in 1783: his boat was propelled by paddles. Mr. Rumsey at London died before his views were completed; but he laboured at it ineffectually for several years from 1788 to his death.

Then came the abortive attempts of Earl Stanhope, Mr. Thompson, Mr. Walker, Messrs Hunter and Dickinson, and Mr. Symington; the two last in 1801.

Lord Stanhope's experiment at Greenland dock, was in 1795. In September 1793, Mr. Fulton had communicated his ideas on steam navigation to that nobleman, who acknowledges it by letter dated October 1794. He pursued a different plan from Fulton.

Mr. Livingston in March 1798 obtained an exclusive right for steam navigation from the New York legislature, but his experiments also were abortive as to any practical utility attending them. He had the merit, however, of rightly appreciating Mr. Fulton's talents, and while ambassador from the United States to France, he joined Mr. Fulton in the plan of steam navigation; and in 1803 they jointly built a boat which was propelled by steam on the Seine at Paris, with so much success, that, on their return to New York, in 1806, the project was put in execution without delay. Fulton gave directions for a steam engine to Boulton and Watt, which was executed in such a manner, as to give the experiment fair play: with this engine the first successful steam boat, built under Fulton's direction, navigated the Hudson permanently in 1807.

Hence it appears that no person whatever, either in this country or in Europe, did fairly entitle himself by practical success to the honour of introducing steam boat navigation, until Fulton took up the project: from that time, no one has found any difficulty in doing what he has taught the world how to do. This is his merit: he never claimed any other himself, and his friends have claimed no other for him.

To show how little pretensions the English have to this discovery, we lay before our readers the following extracts from the best and most popular of the monthly publications of that country.

In the London Monthly Magazine for October 1813, p. 244, it is said, 'We have made it our special business to lay before the public, all the particulars we have been able to collect relative to the *Invention of Steam passage boats in America, and their introduction into Great Britain*; because we consider this invention as worth to mankind more than a hundred battles gained, or towns taken, even if the victors were engaged in a war, which might have some pretence to be called defensive and necessary. It affords us great satisfaction to be able to lay before our readers, a correct description of the Clyde steam boat, obligingly communicated to us by Messrs. Woods, ship builders in port Glasgow. It is but justice, however, to those gentlemen to state, that they candidly consider the steam boats, as they are at present constructed, (that is, on the Clyde) to be in a very rude state, and capable of great improvement.*****

The boat runs in calm weather four or four and a half miles per hour; but against a considerable breeze, not more than three.

In the *Monthly Magazine* for November 1813, vol. 36 page 385, an account is given of the New York steam boats, 'running on an average, with or against the tide, at the rate of six miles an hour, with the smoothness of a Dutch Streckshute.'

In the same page is a wooden cut of the Clyde boat; and a note of the Editors, stating 'that the inhabitants of the populous banks of the Thames, are not at present acquainted with steam boats, only through our descriptions of them.'

In the same *Magazine* for January 1814, p. 529, is a proposal to erect a company for the purpose of building steam boats to navigate the Thames.

In the *Magazine* for February 1814, page 27, is a further description of the American steam boats, as an interesting article of information.

In the same *Magazine* for April 1814, a further account of American steam boats is given by Mr. Ralph Dodd, engineer, who had visited them in this country. He states that there were then two places in Great Britain where steam boats had been employed, to wit, on the river Braydon between Yarmouth and Norwich, and on the river Clyde, between Glasgow and Greenock: and at the close of his account, he mentions that he had been urging the use of this mode of conveyance for two years past, and was happy to find his recommendations realized.

By the *Monthly Magazine* for 1814, p. 358, it appears that the above named Mr. Ralph Dodd had succeeded in forming a company to build steam boats to be used on the Thames: and in the same page it is stated, that the Clyde steam boat had run for eighteen months past: that is, the first steam boat began to run in America under Fulton's direction in 1807, and the first steam boat began to run in Great Britain in or about the month of May in the year 1813, six years after they had been in full operation in this country; in all probability, if it had not been for Fulton's enterprize and ingenuity, Great Britain would not have had a steam boat for these twenty years to come. He showed them how to succeed. Yet is this account in Rees's *Encyclopædia* so drawn up, as if the whole of the invention was owing to English skill and enterprize.

'We hear much (say the editors of the *Monthly Magazine* for April 1813, vol. 35, page 243) of the proven success of the steam passage boats against the rapid streams of the great rivers in America: yet nothing of the kind has yet been adopted in Great Britain. Are we to succumb to America in the mechanic arts?' This was true, for the Clyde boat had not begun to run when that paragraph was written, nor we believe, till at least a month after it was published.

The Edinburgh review, whose editors ought to know what was going on at Glasgow and on the Clyde, contains a great deal of discussion about steam engines, and much in defence of Mr. James Watt's title to the improvements he made in that machine; and

properly: attempts were repeatedly made to plunder that great man of his well-earned reputation and honourable gains, by pretenders in England, as similar attempts were made in this country, to treat Fulton in the same way. James Watt has been supported by the courts of law, and by public opinion: he lives yet in the possession of a large fortune, and widely extended reputation; this is right; he has earned them. Fulton, with merit of the same kind, was worried by contests from the moment his plans succeeded in practice; and he has died in the prime of his useful life, comparatively poor.

The general index to the first twenty volumes of the *Edinburgh Review*, comprehending the month of October 1812, has not an article relating to steam boats. Yet no one can complain that the editors of that work are not sufficiently alive to their national claims. Mr. Watt was a native (we believe) of Glasgow, and the reviewers have not permitted *him* to be defrauded of his fair fame.

All Fulton's engines for his steam boats, are built on the principle of Boulton and Watt's engines: the steam is condensed by the injection of water, and need not be raised to sustain more than five or six pounds weight upon the square inch of the safety-valve. Fulton was decidedly convinced, that this was not only the safest, but the cheapest plan of working an engine. He was well acquainted with the high-pressure engines introduced in England by Mr. Trevethick, and in this country by Mr. Oliver Evans, and had studied them well; but they afforded no inducement to his adopting them.

The generality of steam boats, however, out of the state of New York, are now navigated by engines that work with steam of high pressure, and it will be worth while to discuss briefly the very important question, whether Fulton acted with his usual judgment, in excluding, as he did decidedly, the high-pressure engines from his steam boats.

In the early engines of captain Savary and Newcomen, the piston being raised by means of steam let in underneath it, was permitted to fall by the pressure of the atmosphere upon its upper surface, in consequence of a vacuum being produced underneath by condensing the steam so let in: this was managed by means of a jet of water thrown into the cylinder itself for that purpose. The cylinder being thus cooled at every stroke of the piston, consumed and wasted a certain quantity of steam before the next stroke took place, by condensing a part of the steam let in, until the cylinder became of the temperature of the steam itself: then, and not till then, the steam no longer condensed by the cylinder, acted by its expansive force on the piston, and raised it.

One among the many improvements of James Watt on this engine, was, to save this expenditure of steam and of time, by condensing the steam, not in the working cylinder itself, but in an iron box immersed in water, and communicating by a steam pipe with the inside of the cylinder; into which box a jet of water was thrown to condense the steam, instead of throwing it into the cylinder. It was evident that this mode of working the engine required a considerable quantity of water to supply the injection

pipe, and a well is usually dug for the purpose of affording this supply. Mr. Watt, however, was aware that situations would occur, in which this supply could not conveniently be afforded, and he accordingly provided for the case in the 4th paragraph of his original patent taken out in 1769, as may be seen by referring to the reported cases of Boulton and Watt, v. Bull. 2 Hen. Black. Rep. 463, 3 Vez. jun. 140.; and in *Hornblower v. Boulton and Watt* in error, 8 Durnf. and East, 95.

The engines of Boulton and Watt, however, worked so well, that nobody thought of using engines wherein the steam should be rendered very highly elastic, and be permitted to escape into the open air, till Messrs. Trevethick and Vivian, took out a patent in March 1802: they contemplated, as was well known at the time, the moving of carriages by means of steam; and as a supply of water for condensation could not be obtained in this case, and as it was a great object to lessen the weight of the machinery, their views compelled them to employ an engine, wherein the steam should be permitted to escape in the outer air, instead of being condensed by an apparatus provided for the purpose. This would not only save water, but save the weight of the condensing apparatus. The plan of propelling carriages, however, did not take with the public at that time; and Trevethick erected his engines for the common purposes of manufacture, &c. Although Trevethick did not work his engines with more than sixty lb. upon the square inch of the valve, yet two dreadful explosions of engines built on his construction, brought them into great and deserved discredit, and few of them are now used in manufactories or water works in England: still, the saving in weight, in size, and in the first expense of construction, are circumstances, that have tempted the owners of steam boats to give them occasionally a preference over Boulton and Watt's condensing engines. But the dreadful accidents that happened with high pressure engines at the tide mills in the marsh between Greenwich and Woolwich—the accident that happened from a similar cause, and with a similar engine at Constant's sugar house (*Phil. Mag. Decr. 1815*); the late terrible accident on board the Norwich packet on the 4th of April last, whereby nine persons were killed, and twenty wounded—besides other accidents with high pressure engines that have not found their way into the English newspapers, but are not unknown, have raised a spirit of inquiry into the propriety of suppressing these engines on board steam boats, and have turned the tide of public opinion greatly against them. We have seen Mr. Cook of Glasgow and Mr. Galloway of London, engineers of reputation, come forward decidedly in opposition to these engines: and many (now indeed most) of the steam boat owners in that country who worked with high pressure engines before, have exchanged them for engines of Boulton and Watt's construction. The very able compiler of the articles *Steam*, *Steam Engine*, and *Steam Boat* in Dr. Rees's *Encyclopædia*, who may fairly be supposed in that elaborate work to express the sentiments common among the engineers of the present day, says 'All

the engines (used in steam boats) hitherto used in Scotland have been made on Mr. Watt's principle; but those in America have been high pressure engines; which being more simple and less expensive (in the first instance that is) some of them have been constructed in England: but one of them having exploded in an American boat, the proprietors of some of the English boats have changed their engines for others on Mr. Watt's principle, to avoid similar accidents. *We think it quite unjustifiable in any engineer, to advise the construction of steam boats with high pressure engines; at least for passage boats; in which so many persons are always assembled together, and so near to the engine, that they would all be destroyed in the event of a boiler bursting.*

Since that was written, very serious accidents have happened on board the Norwich packet in England, on board the Enterprize at Charleston, and the Oliver Evans steam boat on the Mississippi in this country. It is not merely from the boiler bursting that danger arises where a high pressure engine is used; for in the case of the Norwich packet, the steam swept away the boiler itself, and this swept away every thing and every person that stood in its way at the time of the explosion; and was thrown in a horizontal direction out at the stern of the boat. Phil. Mag. Ap. 1817, page 300.

Fulton never would use any engine of this description, and in a conversation with the writer of this article, he promised to send him the model of a machine that should prove beyond doubt that at the same expense of fuel, there was not only more safety but more power in the condensing engines. Certain it is, that the accidents on board Fulton's boats by which life or limb were lost or even jeopardized, have not been recorded, nor have we heard of a single accident arising from Boulton and Watt's engines in England, during forty-five years practice throughout the kingdom.

The advantages of high-pressure engines are

1. They are more simple in their construction: the condensing box, the injection pipe, the well, the well-pump, and some other parts of Watt's engine, are dispensed with.
2. For the same reason they are cheaper in the first cost.
3. The cylinder is smaller, and the whole machine occupies less space than an engine of the same power on Boulton and Watt's construction.
4. The power may be more easily increased, on an emergency, than in the condensing engine.

As to the permanent expense in fuel, we believe the advantage on fair experiment will be found in favour of the condensing engine; which, under circumstances equally favourable, will afford more power with the same expense. Indeed, so much water is converted into high steam, and thrown away in the open air in one of Trevethick's engines, that this conclusion is very probable *a priori*. Boulton and Watt have never chosen to erect one on this construction, among a thousand that have been built at their works. We know of no other advantage that can be stated in favour of employing high pressure engines. On the other hand,

1. The condensing engines are *safer*: Fulton's boats can be driven above five miles an hour, with steam that does not press more than six pounds on the square inch; and where are the accounts of lives lost on board his boats by explosions, during the ten years they have run, fourteen now running in New-York state? A high pressure engine working with one-hundred and fifty pounds of pressure on the square inch, presses with a force equal to twenty-one thousand six hundred pounds on the square foot of one hundred and forty-four square inches: while a condensing engine, working with six pounds on the square inch, presses only with eight hundred and sixty-four pounds on each square foot withinside the boiler. Hence it is manifest at once, to every man, whether he be an engineer or not, (a) that a boiler cannot be so much forced by a pressure of less than one thousand as by a pressure of more than twenty thousand pounds on the square foot; (b) that if an explosion takes place by over-loading a condensing engine, it will only make a rent in the boiler, and the steam will escape; for as a boiler which is to sustain only a thousand pounds weight of pressure on the square foot, need be only the twentieth part as strong as one that must sustain a weight or pressure of twenty thousand pounds on the square foot, steam much weaker, more condensible, and less dangerous, will burst the one boiler, than the other: (c) Hence in case an explosion should happen, the steam will be comparatively harmless in a condensing, compared to the steam of a high pressure engine: the former will scald nobody at six feet distance; the latter will scald every man on board the boat; the former will only make a rent in the boiler, and escape and be condensed, the latter (as in the Norwich packet) may carry away the boiler itself even where it is too strong to burst. It may be granted that the diameter of a cylindrical boiler may be so diminished as to annihilate the hazard of bursting—a thermometer tube may resist any pressure that even a steam engine can give withinside of it; but there is a point in practice beyond which the length of the boiler cannot be extended and the caliber cannot be diminished. So that, we must reason from what practice and experience will permit or compel us to use. Mr. Oliver Evans, whose patent is two years later than Trevethick's, and whose form of boiler was for some years exactly the same as Trevethick's, viz: a long cylinder with a flue passing through the centre of it, the ends secured by cast iron flanches—has judiciously altered his original plan, by rejecting the internal cylindrical flue-plate, a source of much danger when the water is by any accident permitted to be too low withinside, and by substituting strong sheet-iron for cast-iron, except we believe as to the door that closes the ends. In fact no part of the steam engine exposed to the pressure of the steam ought to be of cast iron at all. These are improvements: still, *should* an accident happen, steam at the temperature which one-hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds on the square inch indicates, is full as bad as gunpowder; it is not speedily condensible by the common temperature of the atmosphere, and

therefore it is calculated to force away all before it, in every direction; to scald by its heat, and to rend by its force.

2. The advocates of condensing engines ask, that while machines of this description are so much safer in comparison than the others —while they are competent to propel a boat against wind and tide nearly six miles an hour, why run so much risk for such little advantage?

3. They say further that in the long run, the condensing engines are not only safer, but *cheaper*: they consume somewhat less fuel in performing the same service, and they last longer in consequence of not being so much strained, and racked, as a high pressure engine is, and from its construction must be. The packing of one of Watt's engines will require to be renewed once a fortnight perhaps; an engine of one-hundred and fifty pounds on the square inch of the safety valve, once every two or three days. Near this city, an experiment can easily be tried which would settle the question in practice here. At the new water works near the upper bridge over Schuylkill, there are two engines, one of Oliver Evans's construction working with steam that presses one-hundred and fifty pounds on the square inch, and a condensing engine that works with four pounds on the square inch; both built to be of the same power, and to be applied to the same work. Some slight alteration however will be previously necessary:

Let the fire place of the condensing engine be somewhat enlarged, and the mouth of the fire place turned (like that of Mr. Evans's engine) toward the water, so that each shall have the same advantage of a current of air; for in their present state, no certainty would be the result of the experiment. These alterations being made (which in fact must be made) then see which engine performs the most work with the same quantity of fuel in twenty-four hours. For *this* is the true question, *what is the daily expense of fuel?* The original expense of an engine is comparatively nothing; and indeed the actual difference in the expense of the two kinds of engines is little: the great expense of an engine is the *fuel* it consumes.

At what value in fuel can each of these engines do the work of a horse; that is, raise thirty-two thousand pounds weight, one foot high per minute?

The condensing engines of Boulton and Watt in Cornwall in the first four months of the year 1816 raised about twenty-eight and a-half millions of pounds of water one foot high for each bushel of coals consumed; the coals weighing eighty-eight pounds per bushel, which is the regular London weight of a bushel of coals.

Woolfe's improved double engines, raised upwards of fifty millions of pounds weight one foot high, for the expenditure of each bushel of coals consumed.

We do not say that this great effect will be produced by every engine of Watt or Woolfe. Watt's engines at first raised only thirteen and a-half millions of pounds weight for the expenditure of one bushel of coals, but when the steam engine owners of Corn-

wall combined to pay Messrs. Thomas and John Lean for taking a monthly account of the actual work done by every engine at every mine once a month, the engineers gradually improved in the care they took to keep every part of the engine in good order, until from thirteen and a-half they raised the average work to twenty-eight and a-half million of pounds avordupois, raised one foot high, by means of eighty-eight pounds weight of fuel.

Boulton and Watt contract that their engines shall raise five hundred thousand cubic feet of water one foot high at the expense of one hundred and twelve pounds weight of coal. Every cubic foot of water weighs sixty-two and a-half pounds avordupois: this will be, more than twenty-four millions of pounds avordupois raised one foot high, by means of one bushel of coals weighing eighty-eight pounds.

It seems however that in practice the large engines do more work for the same fuel than the small ones.

It will easily be conceived how much more important the consideration of fuel is than the mere first cost of the engine. Suppose for instance, one of the engines at the Schuylkill works, moved at its regular rate for three hundred days in the year, morning and night, and consumed daily eight cords of wood, at seven dollars per cord on the average laid down at the works—the annual expense of fuel alone, would be near seventeen thousand dollars a year!

4. The advocates of condensing engines say that they admit of more precautionary measures of safety than the high-pressure engines. (a) The boiler may be made of sheet iron that will rend instead of bursting: or (b) with equal convenience of copper, a material commonly used in England: (c) the proportion of water and steam can be more easily indicated in the boiler of a condensing engine than in one of high pressure. (d) The self-acting damper that stops the draught when the steam by negligence or accident is raised too high, is an effectual security which cannot be easily adapted to a high pressure engine: (e) when the steam is too high it can escape by blowing through the tube that supplies the boiler with hot water in a condensing engine.

Such are the chief arguments on both sides of this question, which is now anxiously occupying the public in England generally, and a parliamentary committee in particular, whose report we may expect in a few weeks.

The following precautions have been suggested in England:

To try the strength of the boiler by the injection of water under a pressure. This has also been recommended by judge Cooper, Mr. Perkins, Mr. Cloud, and Mr. Graaf, to whom a committee of the common council of Philadelphia applied for their opinions.

To have double safety valves to every engine. Mr. Woolfe, who never works higher than forty pounds, and lets off his steam into a second cylinder, uniformly attaches a second safety valve to his engines. This was recommended by the above named gentlemen, and previously also by Mr. Hare in this magazine.

To have a mercurial guage, pressing on the safety valve with a column of mercury, which in case of the steam being too much raised will blow out. Our objection is, the aperture will be too small to answer the purpose of safety.

To have a plug of fusible metal in the boiler: this was Mr. Trevethick's plan, and absolutely necessary to such boilers as have the fire inside the water cylinder: but it has been seldom adopted by other builders of high pressure engines.

To strengthen the partitions between the engine and the passengers, and to weaken the other parts of the enclosure; so that when the steam exploded, it should issue out at the place of least resistance, and the furthest from the passengers. This was the suggestion of judge Cooper, and Messrs. Cloud, Perkins, and Graaf, in imitation of the practice at gunpowder manufactories; and indeed seems to be one of the most valuable measures of precaution hitherto recommended.

Lastly, to prohibit by legislative interference, the navigating of passage boats by means of high pressure engines, as being dangerous, unnecessary, and calculated to give alarm even when the danger is slight.

This measure is objected to, because, the legislature ought not to interfere in the management of a man's private business—because this legislative interference will arrest the progress of improvement in machinery—because every man is the best judge of the risk he chooses to run—because this measure would give indirect and unfair advantages to a particular kind of manufacture—because boilers can be made to resist any force whatever that can be applied to them—because this kind of interference would be equally vexatious and unnecessary.

To these arguments it is replied:

That the legislature is not requested to interfere in private but in public business. The application relates to steam passage boats alone. Owners of manufactories are at liberty to erect whatever engine they choose, and to run whatever risk they choose. But carriers and passengers have at all times, in all civilized countries, been objects of legislative care and controul. The legislature is called on to prevent the wanton destruction of lives by persons who are careless of every thing but their own emolument. A passage boat is as much an object of regulation as a stage coach; and wilful, needless risk of danger, and danger arising from culpable negligence are equally objects of regulation and of punishment in the one kind of vehicle, as in the other.

That such an interference will not stop the progress of improvement, while every private manufacturer is at liberty to erect whatever kind of steam engine he pleases, at the risk of his own person and his own property. Whenever, by a long course of experience in manufactories, the high-pressure engine shall be found perfectly harmless, let the act interfering with them be repealed. In mean time, the present division of opinion among scientific men, is of itself a sufficient reason for the legislative interference. If an engine

known to be safe, can do all the work required, what injury arises by protecting passengers against the danger of an unsafe one?

That though boilers may be constructed to bear the required pressure, yet the accident on board the Norwich packet shows that the boiler itself may be carried away bodily by high steam.

That these considerations show, the interference asked for, is neither vexatious or unnecessary.

Such we believe to be a true and fair statement of the case, on both sides of the question: whereon let our readers judge.

Having dwelt so long on this question, we have little more room to bestow on Mr. Colden's Life of Fulton, though his exertions to procure a repeal of the present most vexatious patent law—his detection of the knave Redhaffer's fraudulent engine of perpetual motion—his unremitting labours on the subject of canal navigation, until his premature death on the 24th of February, 1815, would furnish room for much useful reflection and discussion.

We sincerely believe that when Fulton died, his country sustained a loss that will not easily be repaired.

DEFENCE OF USURY.

ART. II.—*Defence of Usury; showing the Impolicy of the present legal Restraints on the Terms of pecuniary Bargains; in Letters to a Friend. To which is added a Letter to Adam Smith, Esq. LL. D., on the Discouragements opposed by the above Restraints to the Progress of inventive industry, &c.* By Jeremy Bentham, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 276. London, 1817.

MR. BENTHAM's celebrated Treatise on USURY, wherein he examines the justice and the policy of the laws relating to that subject, and demonstrates the absurdity and inefficacy of legislative restrictions, has produced a revolution in the public sentiment in Europe on the question of usury, and ought to do so here.

The book has been excellently well reviewed, and the argument well considered by the Edinburgh reviewers; it is at least as well done in the following account of Mr. Bentham's work from No. 18. of the British Review; which we have selected, because it gives very fairly and faithfully, all the difficulties that attend any alteration in the present system of laws on this subject; difficulties, that exist with less force in America than in Europe. In short, it is high time we should give up this plan of over-legislating, of regulating every thing, of pretending to know a man's private interest better than he knows it himself, and of laying traps and creating temptations to transgress a system of laws that do not harmonize with the present state of society, and that are continually broken, not merely by subterfuges and evasions, but in the face of day. The admirable argument of MR. HAY on the subject of usury in the Virginia legislature, ought to be in the hands of every American. His motion did not succeed; but ignorance and prejudice will ultimately retire from the contest.

Mr. Bentham's Treatise on Usury, proceeds on the following plan. He considers the arguments against unrestrained bargains for the loan of money under the following heads: 1st, the prevention of usury: 2dly, of prodigality: 3dly, to protect indigent persons against extortion: 4thly, to repress imprudent speculators and projectors: 5thly, to protect ignorance and simplicity against imposition.

As to the first. What is usury? The taking of more interest for the loan and use of money, than the law allows. The offence then, is the mere creature of society and of law. There is no natural standard of interest. Whether usury be permissible or not, then, depends on the policy of the law that creates it.

Interest varies in every country; in England it is five per cent., in Pennsylvania six, in New-York seven, in Calcutta twelve. In bottomry bargains, it is unrestrained: among the Romans in the time of Justinian it was twelve per cent.; in England under Henry VIII., ten. Interest like every other bargain, must ultimately depend on the scarcity of money, and the value of it; that is the use that can be made of it. The Jews indeed were forbidden to take interest from each other, but they indemnify themselves against all the world beside.

Secondly, to restrain prodigality. Can this be done? Will laws against usury prevent it? Cannot goods be sold cheap by the prodigal; or bought dear of the usurer, and resold in such a way that the law cannot touch the transaction? Does not the illegality of the contract increase the risk, and therefore enhance the demand, and of course the evil complained of? Who is to judge of comparative prodigality? Will you put half the community of grown persons in baby leading strings? Of all vexatious legislation, that is the worst which intermeddles in private concerns, and pretends to teach a man of business how to conduct his own affairs. Moreover, it is right that prodigality should bring with it, its own remedy in its own punishment.

Thirdly, to protect indigence. If I want money, I alone can know how much it is worth to me. If I want a house in a particular situation, who but myself can judge of the value of it to me? Wherever fraud and deception takes advantage of ignorance, the principles of equity interfere, without the aid of usury laws.

Fourthly, to restrain projectors and speculators. These men usually do much mischief to themselves, and much good to the community. But where is the line of speculation to be drawn? Who is to be called a projector? A term applied almost universally by ill-bred short-sighted ignorance, to superior knowledge and skill which it cannot comprehend. That harm may be done by a mischievous and fraudulent use of credit, is granted. Morris and Nicholson did much damage: but which of the laws against usury prevented their mode of gambling, or repressed their speculations, or applied at all to their case? The character of the usury-laws throughout—in every case—is to fail in preventing the evil against which they were enacted.

Fifthly, to protect ignorance and simplicity. A man who knows nothing of medicine falls sick. He is too simple and ignorant to cure himself. What does the world say? Send for a doctor who has made it his study and profession to cure the sick. A man is too simple and ignorant to make his own bargains—Let him ask advice of his friends or his lawyer. Will you make laws to annihilate ignorance and folly? You had better have at once a hospital for simpletons in the vicinity of your lunatic hospital.

There is no sound argument in favour of these laws. The pretences for them are founded in gross ignorance of men, of manners, of trade, and dealing.

But they are *inefficient*: no man can mistake how to evade them: by privacy in conducting the contract: by loans on conditions increasing the risk: by buying dear and selling cheap, &c. Of all laws, these are the worst that can never be executed. Laws against usury are *demoralizing*. They drive men to shifts and evasions in lending and borrowing, that blunt the edge of moral feeling. They are *unfair*, because they prohibit what is generally permitted and practised under other shapes, and by other means. Do not all banks and bankers take more than legal interest? Do not all purchasers of paper in the market, money brokers, shavers as they are called, practise usury with impunity? May I not ask and take my own interest for my plate, my goods, my house, my lands? This is well put both by Mr. B. and his reviewer. It is high time these very weak, these very absurd, these laws for the encouragement of deception and evasion, should be repealed; and remain no longer a disgrace to our statute book.

A DEFENCE of smuggling, addressed to the chancellor of the exchequer; or a defence of Spa-fields meetings, addressed to the secretary for the home department, would not have excited greater indignation nor encountered fiercer prejudices than this defence of usury will find directed against it by the majority of rea-

ders, even in the present day. The very sound, and ordinary acceptance of the term, carry with them a host of opposition, which no strength of argument can overcome. As soon as the word usurer is mentioned, the imagination conjures up a hard featured Israelite propounding to a thoughtless youth, or a decayed tradesman, the exorbitant terms upon which only he will consent to relieve his embarrassments; and, the iniquitous bargain being finished, we see the former sent away with his hundred pounds, to be repaid at the end of a few months with half as much more, and the latter with a still smaller sum at a still higher interest. Usury being thus identified with every thing low and disgraceful, the synonym, in short, for fraud, meanness, and cruelty, he must be a bold man indeed who will venture to write in defence of it.

He, then, who holds Mr. Bentham's doctrines will be inclined to ask, in the first place, what are the general principles, whether of trade, politics, or morals, upon which we undertake to justify a restriction on the rent of money, more than upon any other thing which is let out upon hire. If I convert my money into land, or houses, or ships, or horses, or carriages, I am permitted to receive for the loan of them as much as any one chooses to give, or thinks he can afford; nay, what is more, if I were to melt down my guineas and dollars into plate, I should be allowed to ask for the use of this plate, by the day or month, a remuneration to any extent that might be agreed upon between myself and the borrower; but as soon as I should re-convert it into the current coin of the realm I should be once more restricted as to the terms of lending it, and, in consequence of the laws against usury, I should subject myself to a very severe penalty, were I to take for the loan of such coin more than a twentieth part of its value by the year. What is there in the die impressed upon my metal, he would say, to prevent me from enjoying the same freedom as to the terms upon which I may let it out, which was allowed to me whilst it was in the shape of tureens, spoons, or salvers! For land, too, of which money is merely the representative, I may exact and receive any usury that a tenant will give me. I may have ten per cent. on the amount of my purchase money, or fifteen per cent., or even a hundred per cent. For the use of a house, in like manner, I may charge with the same unlimited freedom; and in short, for every other species of property I am not compelled to observe any rule in modifying my demands, except that which is established by competition in the general market, where each wishes to have as much and to give as little as he can; but with regard to the rent of coined gold and silver, for I call the interest a rent, I must not, at my peril, receive more than five per cent. as the annual return from it. What argument founded in the nature of things, or in the general conveniency of society, can be adduced in support of this exception!

Secondly, in driving all other bargains, as to occupancy for definite periods, I am allowed to exercise some discretion with regard to risking my property for an adequate compensation even in the most hazardous employments of it to which it could possibly be

exposed. I may let out my house, for example, to a maker of fire-works, my land to a brick-maker, my ship to be used as a privateer, my waggon to carry gun-powder, and my horse to work in a coal-pit. In all such cases the law leaves me entirely to myself; trusts me with my own interest so far as to allow me to make such terms as will, in the ordinary course of things, meet all hazards and cover all losses; but with regard to money, as before, I am not allowed to run any risks in letting it out upon hire; in other words, I am not allowed to receive any compensation in name of such risks. What can be the ground of distinction between a house, for example, and money, which merely represents the value of a house, that, for an adequate premium, I have it in my power to incur all hazards with respect to the one and not with respect to the other? It is not easy to perceive the views, theoretical or practical, upon which legislators proceed, in forming such distinctions and in enacting such statutes.

Thirdly, as the price of all other things rises and falls with circumstances, and particularly as they become relatively scarce or abundant, how absurd must it be to fix by law the price of money, or, in other words, the rent to be paid for its use, when it is very well known that there is scarcely any other commodity which varies more in its marketable value? To the very same merchant at different times, money may be worth ten per cent., and it may not be worth four per cent. At this moment, owing to the stagnation of certain kinds of trade, loans can be raised by government at little more than three and a half per cent., whereas were there a greater demand for capital created by the revival of our manufactories, loans could not be negotiated under five, or even six per cent. In short, it seems irrational, in the highest degree, first to permit men to deal in money, as they deal in land or cattle, that is, to try to sell or to let it out upon hire, and then to restrict them in their profits, and limit their enterprise. The whole system must assuredly rest on prejudice, and not on large and enlightened views of political science; it must derive its origin from those barbarous times when the fineness of a man's coat, the length of his spurs, and the expense of his dinner, were all fixed by acts of parliament.

We may perhaps trace the very general dislike and abhorrence which are directed against usurers to the single circumstance that all loans of money, prior to the times of an extended commercial intercourse, were granted by the rich to relieve the pressing necessities of the poor; and that the former sometimes so far availed themselves of the dependent state of the latter, as to deprive them of personal liberty, and thus to secure their services for life. The loan of money in this case was like the loan of food to a starving man; it was to be consumed for present support, not to be laid out with the view of re-production; a demand, therefore, for usury in such circumstances could not fail to be regarded as the very utmost stretch of inhumanity or of avarice. In small societies too, where every man could trace the bonds of affinity or of blood by which he was united to the other members of the community, any return

demanding for the use of a pecuniary loan would at once appear more criminal in itself, and brand with deeper odium the sordid creditor who could thus take advantage of necessity to oppress a brother. We find, accordingly, in the laws of Moses that usury was not at all permitted among the family of Israel; the privilege to exact increase being entirely confined to their dealings with strangers. "If thy brother," said that divine legislator, "be waxen poor and fall into decay with thee, then thou shalt relieve him. Take no usury of him nor increase; but fear thy God that thy brother may live with thee. Thou shalt not give him thy money upon usury, nor lend him thy victuals for increase." And in the fifteenth psalm we see usurious practices coupled with "taking reward against the innocent," and described as one of the sins which every good man would study to avoid. A prejudice thus respectable from its origin gained ground, perhaps, at least Mr. Bentham thinks so, in the first ages of Christianity, when virtue was made to consist, in no small degree, in the severe duties of self-denial.

In accounting for the prejudices against usury we cannot surely ascribe much to the absurd notion of Aristotle, that "all money is in its nature barren," for in the very infancy of trade the advantages of having a ready command of the medium of exchange, could not escape the observation of the dealer. The man, too, who had a piece of land without wealth to stock it, would instantly perceive that a loan, on reasonable terms, to enable him to buy a few sheep, would, if not directly productive itself, render available to him the productive properties of his farm. It must be admitted, however, that the phrase, "a barren breed of metal," is completely English, having been received with applause from the stage in the time of Shakspeare; but moreover, that Lord Bacon, in the same age, gave it as his serious opinion, that the power of taking interest upon money was granted to the subjects of Elizabeth, for the very same reason that the right of divorce had been granted to the Jews by Moses, "*propter duritiam cordis*." All these objections to usury, in fact, proceed from the very same source, the presumption that loans were never made for the purposes of traffic, and to enrich the borrower as well as the lender, but solely to relieve indigence, or to ward off distress. Different views, however, are now opened both to the legislator and the people at large. Every body knows that, in these times, a rent is paid for money on the very same principle that it is paid for land or for a ship, and that the object of the borrower, in all these cases, is to gain so much by the use of the article for which he pays rent as to enable him, after making such payment, to add to his comforts or to his capital. It therefore naturally occurs to the most superficial to inquire, wherefore the holder of money should be restricted in the rate at which he lets out his property, whilst the land-owner and the ship-owner are left at perfect liberty to make the best bargain they can.

Leaving out of view the old prejudices already mentioned, and the bad sound of the word *usury* so nearly allied to these prejudices, we may still be able to account for the fact in question by referring

to an apparently justifiable solicitude, on the part of lawgivers, to protect at once the capital of the country, and the persons who may have occasion to borrow it; for regarding all who apply for the loan of money as prodigals, simpletons, paupers, or projectors, and all who lend, as extortioners or cheats, the law hath only extended its broad shield to cover the heads of those who in this case are supposed not to have sense to take care of themselves. Let us, then, examine into the matter a little more closely, and endeavour to ascertain whether the law fulfils that great purpose; whether it does, in fact, procure better terms for the indigent and the prodigal, or whether it does not, on the contrary, greatly aggravate the evils of their condition.

There seems, indeed, to be only one class of prodigals to whose case usury laws can have any application, those, namely, who have spent all their ready money, engaged all their securities, and have no longer any good pledges to offer upon which to raise a loan; for, it is very evident that, as long as a spendthrift has the means, he will gratify his passion, or his love of ostentation; that as long as he has good security to give he will get money at legal interest, and that it is only when he is driven to have recourse to contingencies and distant reversions that a high premium becomes necessary to bribe the usurer. In this last case, indeed, he will be likely to tread upon the forbidden ground of the law, but it would be in vain to attempt to thwart his purpose; for, as he is determined to have money, he will instantly sell his interests in these supposed contingencies, and thus find the shortest road to ruin, in spite of laws and judges. But the matter may, after all, be brought within very narrow bounds by stating as above, that the prodigal who has any thing certain, either in possession or in prospect, will find means to get it spent without violating the laws against usury; and if he has nothing certain, he will get very few usurers to deal with him. Besides, it will be admitted on all hands that it is not worth while to legislate in such cases. It is not at all necessary to the well-being or tranquillity of society to make laws for fools, and more particularly when the violation of such laws, which in this instance is easily practicable, will only render their foolishness more certainly fatal. But, even supposing the law, as it respects the borrowing of money, to be completely efficient and successful, it would only shut up one very narrow outlet; leaving open the large sluices of extravagance which carry off wealth in the shape of tradesmen's bills, overcharged in every article, and with interest upon interest, for, as Mr. Bentham justly remarks, "So long as a man is looked upon as one who will pay, he can much more easily get the goods he wants than money to buy them with, though he were content to give for it twice or even thrice the ordinary rate of interest." To put a stop to prodigality there seems to be no other effectual expedient than that resorted to by the ancient Romans, and still employed in extreme cases, both here and in France, which is, to put the incurable waster under an *interdict*. His relatives may do that for him; the law can do nothing, either curative or positively preventive.

If we advert on the other hand to the case of the indigent and the simple, we shall find that the legal restriction on usury is equally inefficient as a protection against exorbitant demands, on the part of the lender, whilst it operates decidedly to their disadvantage in obtaining relief, and that too, in proportion to the amount of their necessities. By the indigent, we here mean such persons as, from accidental circumstances, are reduced to temporary straits, and to whom the advance of a sum of money would be worth considerably more than the legal interest. It happens, however, from the very conditions of their case as now described, that they may not be able to hold out a competent security for the loan which has thus become so necessary to them; and as the man who might be willing to lend, even on this imperfect security, were he allowed to receive an adequate premium for his risk, is positively prohibited from entering into terms with them, they are consequently, and by the direct operation of the law in question, shut out from all chance of relief. We shall suppose that the pressure of circumstances renders it indispensable for a tradesman to raise, in a given time, a certain sum of money, which, if he cannot borrow it, he must realize by forcing a sale of his goods. But the market we may imagine is unfavourable, and he is certain to lose, by the sale, twenty per cent. on the average price of his commodity; he would therefore willingly give seven per cent. for money, in order to wait a more favourable state of things, and to avoid so great a sacrifice. There are, we shall suppose, more than one individual who would lend him money, at six or seven per cent., but who, as they can get five per cent. on the very best security, will not let him have it for less. The sale must therefore be made, and the embarrassed tradesman is accordingly compelled, by what our author denominates the loving-kindness of the law, to purchase his accommodation at three times the price at which he could have it by means of a loan; and all this evil arises from the absurd officiousness of rulers, who are determined to think and care for the subject, without having either opportunity or talents for becoming acquainted with his business or his particular situation. Thus, in the case before us, the person who needs the accommodation is, of all others, the best qualified to form a correct judgment as to what he can afford to give for it, and what it would be even advantageous to give; yet, the legislator, as Mr. Bentham remarks, in a similar supposition, who knows nothing, nor can know any thing of any one of all these circumstances, who, in short, knows nothing at all about the matter, comes and says to him, 'it signifies nothing, you shall not have the money, for it would be doing you a mischief to let you have it upon such terms.' The apprehension of the lawgiver is that a man, in embarrassed circumstances, will give more for money than he can well afford, that he will ruin himself by the very means he employs to avert that catastrophe; but the balance of chances may, in all such affairs, be left to the discernment of the persons concerned, and particularly of the lender, who before he advances any part of his funds, will make it his business to ascertain the likelihood and the means of being repaid; and as

these depend, in a great measure, upon the success of his debtor, the caution of the one will abundantly counteract the precipitancy of the other. With regard again to simplicity of character, which here means being a simpleton, why should the law of the land extend its guardianship only to pecuniary transactions. A man may buy an estate at a thousand years' purchase; he may give as the rent of a house an annual payment equal to the price of it; he may rent a farm at a sum greater than the worth of the fee-simple, and no law nor judge upon earth will interfere to save him from the effects of his folly. But the moment he is known to rent a hundred pounds at more than 5*l.* per annum, the vigilance of the statute flies instantly to his aid, calls him a great simpleton, and punishes the owner of the property for assisting him. It requires, however, only to be mentioned, as Mr. Bentham has justly remarked, that in what degree soever a man's weakness may expose him to imposition, he stands much more exposed to it in the way of buying goods than in the way of borrowing money. To be informed beforehand of the ordinary prices of all the sorts of things a man may have occasion to buy, may be a task of considerable variety and extent. To be informed of the ordinary rate of interest is to be informed of one single fact, too interesting not to have attracted attention, and too simple to have escaped the memory. A single per cent. beyond the ordinary rate of interest of money is a stride more conspicuous and startling than many per cent. upon the price of any kind of goods.

But if we consider the restrictive system generally, and without any relation to the particular cases of prodigal simpletons, we shall find that the greatest evil attending it arises from the insuperable obstacles which it throws in the way of many persons in the higher ranks of life, and possessed of considerable property, to whom, from a variety of circumstances, a loan may be of the utmost consequence, and who may not be able to furnish that precise degree of security which every man is entitled to expect who lends his money at legal interest. As a return of five per cent. can be had from the public funds, and upon the best heritable security from private individuals, it is not reasonable to suppose that a moneyholder will lend at the same rate where there is the smallest possible risk either of losing his capital, or of having the interest irregularly settled. In the employment of all other kinds of property there are various degrees of hazard, and the usury demanded by the owner always bears some proportion to his estimate of that hazard; but in money transactions, the law recognizes only one degree of risk, and authorizes only one rate of premium, on which account, those who cannot exhibit unexceptionable security will in vain apply for accommodation. It would be easy to imagine a thousand cases wherein this exclusion would operate as a peculiar hardship. We take one from the letters now before us, which seems at once perfectly natural, and free from all exaggeration. After stating that before the war, meaning the American war, for these letters were originally published in 1787, land used to sell at thirty

years' purchase, and that owing to the distress occasioned by hostilities, it had fallen to eighteen or even fifteen years' purchase, he supposes that 'an estate worth, before the depreciation, 100*l.* per annum clear of taxes, was devised to a man, charged, say with 1500*l.* and interest till the money should be paid. Five per cent. interest, the utmost that could be accepted from the owner, did not answer the incumbrancer's purpose: he chose to have the money. But six per cent. perhaps, would have answered his purpose, if not, most certainly it would have answered the purpose of somebody else, for multitudes there all along were, whose purposes were answered by five per cent. The war lasted, I think, seven years; the depreciation of the value of land did not take place immediately; but as, on the other hand, neither did it recover its former price upon the peace, we may put seven years for the time during which it would be more advantageous to pay this extraordinary rate of interest than sell the land, and during which accordingly, this extraordinary rate of interest would have to run. One per cent. for seven years, is not quite of equal worth to seven per cent. the first year; say however, that it is. The estate which before the war was worth thirty years' purchase, that is 3000*l.*, and which the deviser had given to the devisee for that value, being put up to sale fetched but twenty years' purchase, 2000*l.* At the end of that period it would have fetched its original value, 3000*l.* Compare then the situation of the devisee at the seven years' end, under the law, with what it would have been without the law. In the former case, the land selling for twenty years' purchase, that is 2000*l.* what he would have after paying the 1500*l.* is 500*l.*; which, with the interest of the latter sum, at five per cent. for seven years, viz. 175*l.* makes at the end of that seven years 675*l.* In the other case, paying six per cent. on the 1500*l.*, that is 90*l.* a year, and receiving all that time the rent of the land, viz. 100*l.* he would have had at the seven years' end the amount of the remaining 10*l.* during that period, that is 70*l.* in addition to his 1000*l.*—675*l.* subtracted from 1070*l.* leaves 395*l.* This 395*l.* then, is what he loses out of 1070*l.*, almost thirty-seven per cent. of his capital, by the loving-kindness of the law. Make the calculations, and you will find that by preventing him from borrowing the money at six per cent. interest, it makes him nearly as much sufferer as if he had borrowed it at ten.'

In truth, innumerable instances must occur in which great and positive losses are sustained from the operation of the law against usury: It will be readily admitted that nothing could be a greater hardship than to preclude people from borrowing at all; and it must follow that in proportion as obstacles are created to pecuniary accommodation, an approach is made to that great and unnecessary hardship; for, as in certain cases, money must be had upon any terms short of positive ruin, the needy person is subjected to great inconvenience and to an immense expense to procure a loan in defiance of the law, which he is in fact compelled to violate. He resorts to a money-dealer, who not only exacts a premium proportioned to the deficiency of the security which the borrower presents;

that is, to the hazard of losing his capital; but also an additional sum as a compensation for the risk he runs of being detected in an illegal transaction, and of being punished accordingly. Thus the law operates against a man in the *ratio* of his necessities; the more urgent his wants, the greater are the obstacles which are thrown in his way. The person who lends to him must be indemnified, not only for whatsoever risks he incurs independently of the law, but also for the very risk occasioned by the law: he must be *insured*, as Adam Smith observed long ago, against the law which he violates. This cause would operate, as has been forcibly illustrated by our author, even if there were as many persons ready to lend upon the illegal rate as upon the legal. But this is not the case, a great number of persons are of course driven out of this competition by the danger of the business, and another great number by the disrepute which, under cover of these prohibitory laws or otherwise, has fastened itself upon the name of usurer. So many persons therefore being driven out of the trade, it happens in this branch, as it must necessarily happen in every other, that those who remain have the less to withhold them from advancing their terms, and each one accordingly will find it easier to push his advantage up to any given degree of exorbitancy than he would if there were a greater number of persons of the same description to resort to. If we apply these remarks to the cases of the prodigal and simpleton already considered, we shall see good reason for concluding that the most effectual expedient, whereby to prevent imposition, is to allow every one to receive for his money what rent soever he can obtain for it, whether in the name of interest alone, or of interest and insurance combined. Respectable people will not then shrink from a trade, upon which an odium has been cast merely by an artificial distinction in the application of a word, and by a statute founded upon an avowed exception to all enlightened policy.

The foolishness of any law or, at least, its inexpediency in certain circumstances of society, is always clearly manifested by the increased connivance which its incessant violation renders necessary, and by the inconsistencies to which it ultimately leads in legal decisions themselves. Thus, it is very well known, that, notwithstanding the severe penalty imposed by the statute we are now speaking of, usury to a great extent is practised and tolerated every day. The method of accommodation, by redeemable annuity so commonly resorted to, is nothing else than a very expensive branch of usurious dealing, exposing a necessitous person not only to a very heavy interest, as must happen in the case of all clandestine transactions, but also to the additional expense of insuring his life. *Drawing and redrawing* of bills, too, is a mode of raising money known to most merchants, by which, as Dr. Smith has remarked, the interest on any given sum will amount in the course of a year to 13 or 14 per cent. The desperate resource of *selling accepted bills* is likewise, sometimes, rendered available to evade the law, and to ward off distress. B. a borrower, says Mr. Bentham, wants 100*l.*, and finds U. a usurer who is willing to lend it to him at ten pounds

per cent. B. has F. a friend, who is willing to stand security for him to that amount. B. therefore draws upon F., and F. accepts a bill of 100*l.* at five per cent. interest, payable at the end of a twelve-month from the date. F. draws a like bill upon B.; each sells his bill to U. for 50*l.*, and it is endorsed to U. accordingly: the 50*l.* that F. receives, he delivers over without any consideration to B. *Pawn-breaking* is a third way of conducting usurious dealings, which, if it were not legalized, and of course somewhat moderated by competition, would be the most oppressive of the whole; and we heartily agree with our author in thinking that if there is a case in which the allowing of such extraordinary interest is attended with more danger than another, it must be this, which is so particularly adapted to the situation of the lowest poor, that is, of those who on the score of indigence or simplicity, or both, are most open to imposition.

The only remedy for all these evils is to annul the statute against usury, and thereby to grant to the subject the same liberty in giving out money on hire, as he enjoys in the letting of land, horses, houses, or ships. It will indeed be admitted that such a change could not be introduced, all at once, without creating considerable inconvenience. We are ourselves aware of several practical difficulties that would infallibly attend a sudden throwing open of the money market, and there are no doubt many more which will suggest themselves to the practical merchant and the capitalist; but before we proceed to mention any of the impediments now alluded to, we will endeavour to estimate the force of an objection to the measure just recommended, an objection which was originally urged by Dr. Smith, and which has been repeatedly brought forward by more modern authorities. We allude to the injury which he imagined would be entailed upon the community at large, were capital to be too freely entrusted to speculative and enterprising characters, who, in order to prosecute their schemes, might be inclined to give a very high interest for money; but who, in nine cases out of ten, would, in consequence of failure, in the projects, be unable to pay either principal or interest. In the cases already considered, the object of the law was to protect the borrower from the wiles of the lender; in this case, it extends its guardianship to the lender against the borrower; and as the paternal care of the legislator in the former was discovered to have no other effect than to encumber the man who needed money and to aggravate his misfortunes, so there is every reason to believe that the anxiety now displayed for the capitalist will do him as little service. The passage in the *Wealth of Nations*, in reference to which we have made these remarks, is to be found in the fourth chapter of the second book, and is as follows: 'The legal rate it is to be observed, though it ought to be somewhat above, ought not to be much above the lowest market rate. If the legal rate of interest in Great Britain, for example, were fixed so high as eight or ten per cent, the greater part of the money which was to be lent would be lent to prodigals and projectors, who alone would be willing to give this high inter-

est. Sober people, who will give for the use of money no more than a part of what they are likely to make by the use of it, would not venture into the competition. A great part of the capital of the country would thus be kept out of the hands which were most likely to make a profitable and advantageous use of it, and thrown into those which were most likely to waste and destroy it. Where the legal interest, on the contrary, is fixed but a very little above the lowest market rate, sober people are universally preferred as borrowers to prodigals and projectors. The person who lends money gets nearly as much from the former as he dares to take from the latter, and his money is much safer in the hands of one set of people than in those of the other. A great part of the capital of the country is thrown into the hands in which it is most likely to be employed with advantage.'

We must rest satisfied with merely referring to Mr. Bentham's admirable letter, addressed to Dr. Smith, on the discouragements opposed by usury laws to the progress of inventive industry. We may remark, however, in passing, that like the word *usury*, the word *projector* carries something in its very sound extremely unfavourable to a candid estimate of the innumerable advantages which have arisen from the enterprizes of ingenious men; and Adam Smith, accordingly, in the above passage quoted from him, always couples together 'projectors and prodigals.' We may likewise observe, in the spirit of our author, that the greater number of our manufactures, and even those trades which are now esteemed the safest, were at one time mere projects, that is to say, they were begun by people who did not know, who, in fact, could not possibly know for certain, whether they would, or would not, succeed. It might, however, be deemed enough, as far as the community at large are concerned, to leave the safety of the national capital to the good sense or self-interest of those who own it; for if a man of common understanding cannot judge correctly as to the best use to be made of his spare money, he will derive very little aid from all the wisdom that can be embodied in an act of parliament. Before he trusts his property into the hands of a person of the description now in view, he will, we may believe, spare no inquiry with regard to the means of being repaid; and, in calculating chances, he will be more inclined to over-rate, than to fall short of, the degree of risk upon which he ought to ground his claims for indemnification. But we repeat once more, the direct tendency of the law against usury, is not by suggesting suitable precautions, to assist a monied man in guarding his property from the effects of fraud or casualty; it is to prevent the hazard altogether, by forbidding him to listen to any such terms as might induce him to lend it, without having the most perfect security. This being the case, and satisfied that the world, and particularly this part of the world, owes its greatness and its refinement to the success which has attended inventive industry, Mr. Bentham boldly recommends the application of a sponge to all the existing statutes against usury and the establishment of the utmost freedom and facility in conducting money transactions.

Viewing the question in relation to general principles, and to the most approved maxims of political economy, there can be no room for hesitation in pronouncing, that the dealer in money ought to be left as free as any other dealer whatsoever, and that the terms of every loan should be settled on no other ground than the respective circumstances of the borrower and lender. But when we call to mind that this freedom in money dealings has never been acted upon in this country, and that the present distribution of property throughout the kingdom is regulated in a great measure by the restrictive system which has so long prevailed, we cannot give our assent to a measure which would all at once dissolve engagements so essentially important. In this case, as in that of the poor laws, there is little difficulty in proving that we have long been acting upon principles radically unsound, or even in discovering the remedy which, theoretically considered, would soonest remove the evils resulting from the error; but in both cases when regarded in connexion with the habits which have grown upon the public mind, and with the effects which they have had upon the actual value of real property in many parts of the country, the duty of the legislator must appear extremely delicate. Without venturing to say that the interest of money would, in the event of the laws against usury being annulled, rise generally over the kingdom, we may hazard the assertion that it would rise in certain situations; and as many persons, who at present receive only five per cent. would yield to the inducement of eight per cent. which, upon a less complete security, perhaps, some would be ready to offer them, they would of course use means to recover their capital from their present debtors, and thus occasion much inconvenience and distress. When, therefore, we add that one half at least of the landholders in Great Britain are answerable for borrowed money with which they have burdened their estates, either to discharge former claims, or for the purposes of improvement, and that in making all their arrangements they, no doubt, guided their calculations by a reference to the present rate of interest, what would be the disappointment and positive loss were they compelled either to refund the loans, or to make new bargains with their creditors on higher terms! The mere transfer and change of so much capital from one hand to another, and from one investment of it to another, could not fail of itself to produce much inconvenience; and there can be no doubt that many lenders, who, at present, rest satisfied with five per cent. would take advantage of the change to distress their debtors, by exacting higher terms, or would even insist upon having their money paid up, from the mere chance of laying it out to better purposes. In these times, any movement of this nature would prove full of hazard to the holders of real property. A great number of them would find it next to impracticable to arrange anew their various incumbrances; and the rest would be exposed to much trouble and expense.

A second objection occurs to us against a sudden repeal of the usury laws, namely, the derangement and uncertainty which such a

repeat would introduce into mercantile affairs, and more particularly into the actual practice of bankers. As matters stand at present, there is no difficulty whatever in settling an account current between merchants at any instance of time or place; for, as the legal interest does not vary from month to month, and is the same at London as at Inverness, the balance due at any period can be immediately ascertained, together with the proportion of interest due upon that balance. This facility of transacting business would, however, be greatly impaired, were the rate of interest to be thrown entirely loose, and no means left of establishing a maximum in every particular case which might be open to dispute; and it is very obvious that, as soon as interest would be found varying to any great extent in different parts of the same kingdom, and in different portions of the same year, disputes would be inevitable. If the merchant in London could get six per cent. for his money, whilst the merchant in Inverness could get no more than four per cent., the former would consider himself a loser, when, at the end of any given period, he should find that the latter allowed him only the lower of the two rates just mentioned, on all the balances which happened to be in his hands, during the lapse of any specified time. Nay, the northern merchant might choose to maintain that, for several months of a particular year, the rate of interest at Inverness did not exceed three per cent., whereas the southern might possibly have heard from some other correspondent that interest, at that place, had never been under five per cent. What a source of disagreement and dispute would be thus opened up! With regard, again, to the discounting of bills in banks, the terms would be found to vary according to the name and supposed credit of the persons who accept or present them; and merchants would have a new bargain to make, as to the rate of discount, every time they wished to convert bills into money. According to the law now existing, a bill must either be discounted or refused; it is either as good as the legal tender of the kingdom to the man who holds it, or is good for nothing; but as soon as bankers should be allowed to estimate the credit of endorsers, and to charge for discount accordingly, the value of a bill would vary with circumstances, from fifty to ninety-five per cent.—This, it may be retorted, is the only fair premium required for the risk which is thus incurred by the banker, and is, of course, as allowable in this case as in that of a loan granted upon imperfect security. True, but as bills are constantly passing through the hands of merchants and constitute, in fact, their circulating medium, it must be extremely vexatious to have their value so arbitrarily fixed, and so frequently called in question, as they must be, whensoever the banker shall have it in his power to raise his terms, by lowering the credit of the acceptor. In Hamburg, accordingly, where there is no legal rate of interest established, and where all bills are discounted by private merchants; no man who holds a bill knows its actual value, as he may have to pay six, eight, ten, or even fifteen per cent., for an advance of money upon it. In this country, we are aware an understanding would soon take place

between the mercantile and banking interests for the regulation of their intercourse, and, for this purpose, it is by no means unlikely that a *maximum* would be fixed, as at present, both for the rate of discount and for the charge of interest on running transactions. Still we have said enough to suggest to persons better acquainted than ourselves with the detail of trade a variety of cases in which the change recommended by Mr. Bentham would be no improvement; and we may venture to add, that to such as have but small capitals, and are just entering into business, the change would be even disadvantageous. It would compel individuals in these circumstances to pay highest for credit, at the very time when they could least afford to pay; and it would accumulate advantages in the hands of old commercial houses, who would thus be enabled to command, to a greater extent than they can do at present, the markets both of money and of saleable commodities.

In the third place, the repeal of the laws against usury would materially increase the responsibility of those who act, upon trusts, for absentees and minors. At present, such persons are only answerable for the sums which come into their hands, together with the legal interest on such sums; but in the circumstances anticipated under Mr. Bentham's reformation, it will become extremely difficult, and not less delicate, both to act in such a way as to satisfy their principals; and, in some instances, to explain the motives upon which they may have acted. The absentee returning home, or the minor coming of age, may insinuate that his money might have been more advantageously employed, that it might have been accumulated at six per cent. instead of four or five per cent.; and in some cases, after a lapse of years, it would not be an easy matter to convince even impartial persons that the trustees had done all they might have done, on behalf of their wards or clients. The security which they had declined as insufficient may have turned out to be good; and their caution in refusing to advance money upon it at a high interest may be only regarded as indifference to the welfare of their constituents.

We mention these things, not as insuperable bars to a repeal of the laws against usury, but merely as circumstances which ought to be kept in view, and allowed due weight, in all estimates of the comparative advantages of the two systems, the restricted and the free. The subject has already been under the consideration of parliament, and it is likely that it may soon again be submitted to their attention; on which account, we regard every attempt to throw light on its tendency, immediate and remote, as praiseworthy, whatever be the views which the several writers may choose to recommend. There can be no doubt, however, that Mr. Bentham has on his side the full force of enlightened principle, and even the practice of the constitution and of the country at large, in every other article except that of money; whilst his antagonists draw all their arguments from the evils of change, from the settled habits of trade and commerce, and more particularly from the present condition and distribution of property. The regimen recommended by the former is admit-

ted even by the latter to be good, abstractedly considered; but it is maintained by them that the patient has been so long accustomed to a system diametrically opposite, that it would be unsafe to compel him, all at once, to alter his mode of living.

As a sort of appendix to this little volume, is published, for the second time, a 'Protest against Law Taxes,' in which the author animadverts with great severity on the obstacles which are thereby created, to the free and equal administration of justice. The 'Protest' was originally put forth as a single pamphlet, and is said to have produced such an effect upon the men then in power, that it was seriously resolved to abolish the taxes in question. In confirmation of this, Mr. Bentham tells the following anecdote:

'Mem. Anno, 1796.—At a dinner at Mr. M. P.'s in—Street, Mr. R., in the presence of Mr. William Pitt (then minister), took me aside, and told me that they had read my pamphlet on Law Taxes; that the reasons against them were unanswerable, and it was determined there should be no more of them.' 'Anno 1804, July 10, 12, 14, 18.—This being in the number of Mr. Addington's taxes; Mr Pitt, upon returning to office, took up all those taxes in the lump. On the above days, this tax was opposed in the House of Commons; and Mr. Wyndham, according to the report of the *Times*, on one of those days, spoke of this pamphlet as containing complete information on the subject, observing at the same time, that it was out of print. On behalf of administration, nothing like an answer to any of the objections was attempted; only the Attorney General (Percival) said, that the addition proposed to those taxes was no more than equal to the depreciation of money.'

Instead of entering into the merits of this question, which has nothing to do with the main object of this article, we shall transcribe a *note* contributed by a 'learned friend' of the author, and which is called by him an 'addition.'

'In the Court of Chancery, two cases have recently occurred, which may serve us as an illustration of the extent in which taxes upon law proceedings may operate as a denial of justice.—*Roe v. Gudgeon*.—The defendant, in answer to the plaintiff's bill, submitted that he ought not to be compelled to set out certain accounts which had been required by the bill, as the expense of taking what is called an office copy of them—a necessary preliminary to any further proceeding on the part of the plaintiff in the cause—would amount to the sum of 29,000*l.*; an expense almost wholly arising from the stamps on the paper, on which the office copy of the answer is compulsorily made. In this case, the court determined that it was not necessary these accounts should be set out; but, in coming to this conclusion, how far the court was determined by the nature of the particular case, or by the magnitude of the expense that would thus be occasioned; or whether if, without any such objection, the defendant had actually set out these accounts, the plaintiff could have been relieved from pursuing the regular mode of procuring a copy of them, and thus incurring the above expense; or whether, if the expense had been instead of 29,000*l.* only 28,000*l.* or 27,000*l.*, such an objection would have been listened to; it is extremely difficult to say.

'The other case alluded to is one in which, from peculiar circumstances, it is not thought proper to mention the names of the parties. It is optional with a man to be a plaintiff in a cause, it is not altogether so optional with him to be a defendant. The preceding case shows that it is not always safe for a man to become a plaintiff, without 28,000*l.* at least in his pocket, to begin with, over and above what is necessary for his maintenance. The following case shows that a man may not be always able to resist a demand, however unjust it may be, without being able to support an outlay of at least 800*l.* In the case in question, the writer of this has been assured, and from authority which he has peculiar reason for relying upon, that the expense of merely putting in an answer by *one* of the defendants to a bill in equity amounted to the above sum of 800*l.*; what part of this expense was occasioned by the tax on law proceedings cannot be accurately ascertained, but it assuredly constituted a very considerable proportion of that sum.'

Both the subjects treated of, in the little volume now before us, are unquestionably of great importance in themselves, and they are rendered still more interesting from the manner in which they are handled. Mr. Bentham, has been long known as a deep and original thinker, and, like all such thinkers, he never fails to express his views in the most appropriate and forcible language. Fixing his eye upon the leading point of his argument, he moves on towards it in a steady and undeviating line, drawing from the right and left materials for proof or for illustration, but never turning aside from the prosecution of his main object, either to obviate misconception, or to remove difficulties. His character as a writer is such, that he may fail to convince, but he cannot possibly fail to engage the attention of his readers.

ART. III.—*An Englishman's Journal on a Voyage from London to Boston, with Sketches of American Customs, Manners, &c.*

(THERE is nothing either profound, remarkable, or new, in the following short account of a voyage from England to America; it relates many trifling and uninteresting facts and occurrences; still it is worth perusing; for it is really what its title imports it to be: it contains the genuine undisguised remarks of good sense and good feeling. The narrative has that stamp of truth and reality upon it—that raciness of originality, which always does and always will please. Upon the whole it is an account creditable to the narrator, and honourable to our country, and we are persuaded it will be acceptable to our readers.—ED. AN.)

I HAD long entertained a desire of visiting the American continent. The narratives which I had gathered from some acquaintances at college, natives of that country, who had come over for the purpose of studying medicine, were such, as to excite my ardent curiosity to explore the state of society, together with the vast natural resources in the new world. The descriptions by Morse, Winterbotham, and other writers, I had attentively perused.—Opportunity at length offered, on the conclusion of peace; and having an appointment in one of the West India islands, adjacent to the coast, I determined to profit by the occasion, and visit America.

Having complied with the vexatious and expensive forms of the London custom house, and seen my baggage embarked on board the American ship *New Galen*, in the London dock, I proceeded a day or two after, to Gravesend, the usual place of embarkation. Awaiting here the arrival of the captain, I experienced those exorbitant charges so characteristic of places of great resort in England. The proprietors of taverns and hotels in such situations, advance their demands of rent upon the tenants, until they can only be defrayed by immoderately enhancing the prices of accommodation, and thus, as in most cases, the tax falls upon the consumer.

7th September went on board—was much struck with the appearance of the seamen and trim of the vessel. She seemed particularly well manned, and in fine sailing order. The men from the eastern coast of America are large, well proportioned, and make excellent mariners. Many of them are bred in the Newfoundland fisheries, where they endure great hardships and learn to become fertile in resources. 11 o'clock: Our captain now joined us, and the passengers were summoned to appear at the Gravesend custom house, personally to deliver in their names, and a statement of their professions. Had any been known to be artisans or manufacturers, they would have been stopped and forbidden to leave the kingdom. An act of parliament imposes a heavy fine on those who induce them to attempt it. Thousands succeed in evading it, by giving a wrong description of themselves, and no one acquainted with the parties being present to detect it, they succeed. The two custom house officers on board now left us, but not without soliciting a bribe from each of the passengers, whose travelling portmanteaus they did not think fit to inspect, making a merit of their forbearance, although they knew a search might be only unproductive labour, no part of the contents being likely to be contraband. They complained of their salaries being too small to enable them to maintain their families, and literally begged of every passenger as for alms. There is a standing order from the commissioners of customs prohibiting this, but it is altogether overlooked, being considered a mere dead letter. Our mate remarked to me, "we manage these things better in America."

We now weighed anchor and hoisted our colours, proceeding down the river Thames with an easy wind, which dying away towards evening, obliged us to anchor at the Nore for the night. Ebb tide next morning enabled us to proceed, with a gentle breeze, to the Downs, where we again anchored. Saw two Dutch men of war riding at anchor near us. The government of the Netherlands appears determined to pay attention to the creation of a navy. Their squadron in the Mediterranean is well fitted and disciplined. The two ships appear to be 74's.

9th, The prevalence of westerly winds retarded our progress down the British channel, and obliged us again to come to an anchor in Dungeness roads. Lydd church, the mill, and even some of the larger houses, where I had once passed many a pleasing hour, were

visible from the deck: and drew from me a hope that we were not to be separated for ever.

*Dulciâ rura valete, et Lydiâ dulcior illis,
Et casti fontes et felix nomen Agelli!*

10th, Stood into Winchelsea Bay, obliged to tack, the wind being west and strong. The flag flying at the mouth of Rye harbour, the usual signal for high water. 11th, Passed Beachy Head and Brighton, spent the remainder of this and the whole of the following day in tacking down channel, the wind continuing adverse. 13th, Arrived at Cowes, and landed. It is a pretty little town, beautifully situated in a rural part of the Isle of Wight, nearly facing Spithead and Portsmouth. Ships from abroad touch here to wait orders from London, as to a market, and those outward bound here take on board water and live stock. Strangers cannot be too circumspect at places of resort like this. Sharpers are ever on the alert offering to carry parcels or baggage for the passengers, and ready to disappear with their trust, if an eye is not kept upon them. One of the boatmen, frequenting the inns, to whose care I had committed a parcel with some silver, which I was sending to a tradesman in the town to get changed, came back and swore it had been thrust out of his pocket in descending the side of a brig he had boarded on some other business in his way to the shore. By this subterfuge, and the circumstance of our getting under weigh about an hour afterwards, of which he was aware, the fellow screened himself from public justice, and no doubt enjoyed a state of intoxication for several days. Our captain purchased a quantity of potatoes at East Cowes. Before they could be brought off in the ship's boat, the rascals in the shop had emptied the sacks of about a fourth of their contents. Such instances of dishonesty are becoming very prevalent in England. The distresses of the people, in many cases, drive them to the commission of crimes at which, in prosperous circumstances the mind would have revolted. The Englishmen of a lower class, will do any thing for money; are capable of going all lengths, and totally regardless of all consideration if they can but procure the means of becoming besotted. Setting aside every reflection as to personal respectability or independence, neglectful of the interests of his family, and relying on a parish workhouse as his last resort, the low and wretched being squanders the earnings of his toil, and seems unworthy or incapable of well doing. Hence, partly, the accumulation of public distress, the increase of poor rates, and the degradation of the national character. The general poverty in England, the difficulty of obtaining employment and subsistence, in consequence of the redundancy of its population, and the numerous arts to which these causes have given rise, for plundering and defrauding the unwary, contribute to produce more systematic crime and profligacy, perhaps, than in any other country of the known world. Look at the report of the committee of the house of commons, appointed to inquire into the state of public morals and the general police. Surreptitious means of gaining a livelihood are resorted to when honest endeavours fail, and it has, unfortunately, be-

come a prevalent opinion in England, that in these days "common honesty will not enable a man to get on." So dreadful are the times.

At Cowes we received on board more passengers. Several French officers too, proceeding to join the patriots in South America, landed here from a vessel that proved leaky on her voyage from Antwerp, applied to our captain for passage to Boston, but could not be accommodated. The captain assured me that before leaving London, he had about a hundred applications for passages in the steerage of the vessel or between decks, and one from a custom house officer, who could not manage to get his living by that calling, (probably being too honest,) but all were so completely beggared by the times, that they had no ready money. Some offered goods, and to sell their services for a term, on their arrival in America, as *redemptioners*, but the captain was averse to the trouble and uncertainty attending these proposals. Many vessels have carried considerable freights, by means of accommodating these living cargoes. The charge for each person is 10*l*. The captain fits up a birth or bed place and finds water. The passengers take their own provisions. About 15*l*. is the total cost of such a passage. Persons ought to select sharp built vessels, calculated for swift sailing, and if possible to start in the months of May, June, or July, when southerly winds prevail. Dull sailers, setting out in the winter season, have been known to be three months and upwards in effecting the voyage to America, whereas a proper vessel, in summer, ought not to be more than thirty days. Westerly winds prevail in autumn, in spring, and winter: North westers, as they are termed, blow during the greater part of the time, and unless the vessel is expressly adapted for sailing well, close hauled upon a wind, those who calculate upon a month or six weeks trip in the purchase of their stock of provisions, will be liable to some inconvenience. Left Cowes 15th September, and took our departure from the Lizard Light the 20th.

The 24th September was approaching, and we were now to experience the windy violence of the autumnal equinox—it was, as usual, ushered in by strong gales, and consequent heavy seas. We lay to, as the sailors term it, during its extreme height, and were thereby enabled to ride it out with tolerable facility.

Nothing material occurred until the 13th October, when we found ourselves in forty-five fathom soundings upon the Grand Bank of Newfoundland, and surrounded by various sails of vessels. We counted six at anchor this day, bearing the white flag, engaged in fishing—four the next: and spoke one full of fish, bound to Marseilles. This valuable nursery for seamen, appears not to have escaped the attentive policy of the French government. I was informed by the master of *Le Dauphin*, belonging to Rouen, which I took an opportunity of boarding with our chief mate, that these vessels receive a bounty according to the number of fish they take. We exchanged some porter and eggs for fish. The old captain insisted on our drinking some *eau de vie* with him, and was anxious to hear the

news of Europe. He inquired eagerly if all was tranquil in France, and Louis the 18th secure on the throne. On our answering in the affirmative, he expressed a sincere pleasure. It must be acknowledged that under the Bourbons, France saw its most flourishing and happy times. The little but useful fishing islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, where the French fishermen were accustomed to clean and cure cod and hollibut, taken on the banks, were lost with the change of dynasty and the adoption of a war system. Whatever may be the qualifications of the present government in France, some security at least, appears to be afforded to the peaceful pursuits of commerce.

Several whales, some larger than our ship, (which being of 350 tons, was none of the smallest,) surrounded us, spouting up the water to an immense height, through their nostrils, and continued to accompany the vessel until out of soundings.

22th October—Land was descried from our mast head, and the news spread rapidly through the ship. It was received with the greatest satisfaction by all on board. One of the seamen was venting his joy in loud terms, at seeing his native country once more, after an absence of twelve years. I inquired the cause of so unusual a feature in the history of an American seaman, conceiving it could only arise from captivity or some such occurrence. It appeared that he had been three times pressed into the British navy. In the first instance he was taken out of an English brig, and notwithstanding his protection as an American subject, and native of the United States, was produced, yet, being found sailing under British colours, he was not regarded as exempt. The plea for the second impressment, appears to have been founded solely on the precedent of the first: this seems hard. What should we say, were the Americans to press into their navy British seamen, found on board of American ships? It seems impolitic to compel a foreigner to enter the service of a government he does not prefer. Impressment, is at all times a severe hardship, but surely it ought to be restricted to natives of our own soil, who owe allegiance to, and live under our constitution, such as it is. We are not to regulate the subjects of foreign powers by our own policy. Every subject of every country, has inalienable rights, which ought to be respected, or national quarrels, as we have already seen, may be engendered, and individual wrongs may justify public aggressions. This poor man, I understood, was one of many more under precisely similar circumstances. The American consul in London, with a laudable attention, had shipped him for Boston.

We were now drawing near to the close of the voyage. Cape Cod bore S. S. W. about three leagues, and it was with no common feeling of curiosity and desire, I saw our approximation to the coast. The land of Washington and of Franklin—presenting a practical example of the simplest, most economical, and most perfect form of government, suited to a thinking people—confined no longer in its existence to the reveries of the schoolmen, or Utopia of the theorist. Such considerations, together with a crowd of

others, connected with the probable future part this country may be destined to perform in the politics of the world, occupied my mind in the intervals of lighter conversation, and gave rise to such a train of reflections as a sanguine imagination loves to indulge. I contemplated the mighty objects before me—I saw, in idea, a flourishing empire, destined to give laws to the new world, extending perhaps, at some future day, from the Arctic Circle to Cape Horn, and civilizing its boundaries to the western shore, where new riches and new resources break upon the astonished view. To bear a part in the great work of general civilization, to assist in diffusing the blessings of good government throughout regions ignorant of them and enslaved—were to my mind objects of inexpressible interest and delight. I felt as though I had something new to live for: and that mind, the noblest endowment of nature, was created for purposes beyond the solitary gratification of the individual.

Late at night we had run considerably up the bay, and off Boston light house were boarded by a pilot, who conducted us safely to our anchorage opposite the town.

Next morning I sallied on shore, and landed on Long Wharf, which is constructed of land gained from the sea, one mile in projection. I was much pleased with this instance of public spirit and enterprize. A row of warehouses, or as the Americans term them, stores, line one side. In front and rear, vessels from almost every quarter are moored. The destination and name of each is denoted by a board affixed to the shrouds, with the words painted, as an index for those wanting to ship goods or take passage. There are three other public wharves, appropriated to the reception of vessels, distinguished by their respective appellations, viz. Russia Wharf, India Wharf, and English, sometimes called Liverpool Wharf, three-fourths of the vessels from England, coming from the port of Liverpool alone. Besides these, there are many private wharves. The first object that strikes the attention is the busy throng in State-street, the principal avenue into the town from Long-Wharf. As you advance, the eye is attracted towards a lofty pile, with an elegant dome of glass. The Exchange Coffee House, originated in the speculation of an individual; who was ruined by the want of that support, which the meritorious nature of his undertaking might have entitled him to. On the ground floor is a splendid saloon well lighted from the top of the building; beside different compartments, one appropriated to a handsome coffee room, another to a news room, in which are kept files of papers from every part of the union and from Europe; also a register book, in which is noted hourly, the latest intelligence received, sometimes by express, sometimes from personal inquiry of masters of vessels, whether political, mercantile, or maritime. The conductors of the institution, certainly manage this department with great zeal and public spirit.

The upper part of the building is partitioned off, for broker's offices and counting houses.

It is the custom in America for strangers to repair to a boarding house on their arrival, where they are lodged and boarded very

comfortably for various sums, according to the fare, and the respectability of the situation. A *gourmand* might be well pleased with his accommodation for a dollar a day. Few persons resort to taverns, unless farmers and their families who make a short stay, and have their horse and chaise with them. As a proof of this country being highly favourable for the emigrant, I am credibly informed, that thirty-seven persons, who arrived two days before us, all got into employ in the course of one week in Boston; they were stone masons, bricklayers, carpenters, and other handicraft trades. My own personal knowledge extends to this. I recognized an Irish seaman, who had worked his passage out in our ship, employed on board a vessel in the harbour, helping to unload her. I asked him how he got on. "Faith, sir," replied Pat, "this is a fine country indeed; I get a dollar and a half a day, and board with a countryman of mine for three and a-half dollars a-week. In England I could not get any thing to do."

A Swiss confectioner, who, when he first arrived, was glad to get employ as journeyman, now keeps a shop in State-street, rented at eight hundred dollars per annum. Judge Robbins informed me of a family, consisting of a man, his wife, and nine children, only a few months from the neighbourhood of Northampton: He had himself taken one of the boys to assist in his farm, the father and two other of the sons were employed in a tannery at Roxbury; they had followed the tanning business in Northamptonshire until the cessation of war left them without orders. The daughters had been in a lace manufactory, and now got more lace to make for the ladies of Boston than they could accomplish—the people of Massachusetts are certainly kind to the distressed, and will not see a person suffering from want. Public institutions of every kind are well conducted. A number of very sensible men are entrusted with the regulation of municipal affairs. The state legislature or general assembly of the delegates of the state, holds its sittings in a very spacious and commanding edifice, built on an ascent. From its cupola, the eye is gratified with a noble view of the town, shipping, and surrounding country. Bunker's Hill, celebrated during the revolutionary war, as the spot where a sanguinary engagement was fought between the British and American armies, in which the former lost an unprecedented number of officers by the enemy's marksmen, is clearly discernible at a distance only of two miles from Boston, and is designated by a stone monument to the memory of one of the American generals.

In another quarter, the eye is attracted to the town and university of Cambridge. There are four halls or colleges, the principal of which is Harvard College, so called after its founder and benefactor John Harvard, Esq. It is a handsome free-stone edifice. A botanic garden, well stored with rare exotic plants, is attached to it. This is the principal seat of learning in America.

In descending, your way to the town lies through the Mall, planted with trees—the houses substantially built and very elegant. In many parts of Boston, indeed, houses are to be met with, that even

in England, would be greatly admired. The streets are pleasantly laid out. The inhabitants of New-England, if I may judge from the specimens at Boston and Newburyport, are a keener and more subtle people in trade and money matters, than their brethren in the old country. They wear a serious meditative air, are wholly absorbed in revolving their pecuniary concerns, and apparently very suspicious and cautious to guard against being cheated. Whether it be a constitutional circumstance or an acquired habit, it is evident, that a lurking reserve is to be read in their countenances, which I am sorry to perceive are never lighted up with that cheerful animation so characteristic of a Briton. I brought to this country no prejudices, and should be sorry to partake of any such feelings of malevolence as appear so visible in the accounts of some of my countrymen who have visited America—Farmer Parkinson, Weld, and Ashe—but I must be allowed to say what I think. New England courtesy is deficient; and when a man, in reply to a civil question, is answered in a dry cold-hearted manner, with a pause and hesitation, as if his motives in asking it were made the subject of doubt and suspicion, it leaves no pleasing impression upon the mind. Affability, in short, appears to be scarcely within the pale of their local vocabulary of virtues. This may be hereditary defect, to be traced in generations; the only way of remedying which, is in that case, to encourage intermarriage with some of the blooming buxom young women of Lancashire or its vicinity, who would assuredly resort to Massachusetts in numbers, were encouragement offered; tending to improve the tone of society, and infuse new life into the character of the rising progeny. By cheerfulness is not meant levity—but a certain openness of disposition, a candour in demeanor, that *suaviter in modo* in short, perfectly compatible with the strictest prudence. Politeness is a pleasing, and oftentimes a most useful accomplishment, the attribute of a refined mind. It may be cultivated too, at no expense.

The remarkable shrewdness and intelligence of the people on most subjects, we must ascribe in some measure, to the originality of natural parts, and equally to the general avidity for information so cheaply disseminated in the public newspapers, and accessible to all. There exists a great jealousy as to their political rights; and two leading parties, termed Federalists and Republicans seem equally strenuous, in watching and defending them according to their own views of the question—each of course has its supporters, and it is to the struggles of the two together, with their unceasing vigilance, animated by the arguments of the respective prints, that I think I can trace the thirst for knowledge so generally prevalent. There is, besides a predominant desire of bettering their condition, a zeal for public improvements, as connected with their own proximate or remote interest, and a very praiseworthy attention to education—such at least as qualifies their children to be skilful in commerce and the ordinary acquirements of life. The time is not yet arrived when large sacrifices are made to promote the advancement of youth in the higher branches of attainment, nor does literary occu-

pation assume, as in England, extensive rank as a separate division of labour. In this respect, however, the New England States, from what I can understand, are more forward than their neighbours. The value of advanced acquisitions in learning and the sciences are, as yet, but imperfectly appreciated, and the literary taste of the country requires to be farther cultivated and promoted, before they can receive that encouragement, which would redound both to individual and national honour and advantage. It cannot be from any want of capital in the country that the higher departments of genius languish in obscurity—all classes appear to be engaged in lucrative, or at least productive employment—the value of the shipping, moveable property, and warehouses, (of which an immense line is now building, carried to a considerable height) bear evidence of the prosperity of the place, and the wealth of the inhabitants. It is well known that some of the most monied characters in the United States are to be found in Massachusetts. The influx of distinguished foreigners will, it is to be hoped, have a beneficial effect, in time, upon the literary and scientific character of the people—importing from countries where talents and acquirements alone constitute a title to consideration—those principles and opinions, the diffusion of which would beneficially illuminate the human mind in this new world.

To pass from these considerations to others of less moment, I cannot but censure a depravity of taste, as connected with a deficient perception of propriety in the audience of a Boston theatre, laughing loudly at certain gesticulations of the performer in parts necessary to elucidate mixed feelings in the play, when the attention ought to be fixed in unravelling them,—and I could not see that the English custom of sitting uncovered, in compliment to the ladies and the house, which has a striking appearance certainly of decency and decorum, was in many instances observed.—I do not suppose, as a companion remarked to me, that it proceeded from a feeling of pride and independence, when no opportunity could be so unreasonable for their display, as in an assemblage of hearers met to profit by the moral examples or inferences of the drama.

The young men appear ostentatious of much hair smoothly combed and projecting from the head: elder people too, tie up their hair in a manner that has not a prepossessing appearance. Indeed, I have observed in America a reluctance to part with their hair, at which I am surprised, considering its weight and oppression on the head, which have a tendency to produce pain, and even obtusion of the faculties, affecting possibly the sensorium of the brain by sympathy.

Before taking my leave of Boston I must notice the very respectable footing on which the custom-house is conducted. The officer placed on board our vessel very politely declined examining any baggage, merely requiring the trunks to be opened, slightly glanced at, and then closed. An American custom house officer would spurn the offer of a present or a bribe; they are paid suffi-

ently to enable them to subsist and maintain their families without having recourse to practices degrading to that respectability they are careful to preserve. I cannot omit recording a fact which impressed my mind with a high idea of the liberality characteristic of the officers of government towards strangers. I was about to enter a small library of books I had with me, and rated them of course as low as possible in order to save, as I thought, duty, after the rate of fifteen per cent. I gave in two hundred and fifty dollars as my estimate, and remarked, that as I was shortly to quit the country I should hope to be entitled to drawback or a restoration of the money paid for duties, on my exporting the same.—“What,” said the collector, “five cases of books, and valued at only two hundred and fifty dollars,—did not these London books cost you more?” I replied that many of them had been used and damaged, and that, as the valuation had passed at the London custom-house, I conceived it would be satisfactory to the officers of customs in Boston. “Well” replied the other, “go to the friend, to whom you came recommended, and consult him. If the duty amounts to a less sum than fifty dollars, it is, in that case, not allowed by law on exportation—come to me to morrow.” I thanked him—said I should examine my bookseller’s bills, and wait on him as desired. I could not help remarking the kind, manly, and generous feeling of this gentleman, (whose name I understand is Tracey) as illustrative of the prevailing disposition to befriend foreigners in the United States when suitable opportunity offers.

Taking leave of my Boston friends I proceeded, 20th November, for Newburyport, a very thriving, busy little seaport, about forty miles from Boston. I passed through Salem, a flourishing maritime town, sending more ships to the East Indies than any other port in America, but as it was late at night, did not stop to examine it.—Newburyport is seated on a fine river, the Merrimack, which flows into the interior upwards of two hundred miles, and thereby gains to this town a brisk inland trade. Vessels passing up and down with merchandize, &c. and all vessels entering the port should be moderately taxed for the purpose of constructing a breakwater, outside of the harbour, which is rendered extremely insecure by a bar of sands continually shifting. The inhabitants of Newburyport are a clever, intelligent race of people, partaking of the usual reserve towards strangers, but friendly to those well introduced. On subjects relating to the interests of the town, navigation, and commerce in general they are extremely well informed. I was introduced to a Mr. Nelson, member of congress, who seemed to me to possess considerable talents and information on a variety of subjects. The English traveller will be agreeably surprised to find no charge made at any of the inns or hotels in America for extras beyond his fare or accommodation. No waiter, or chamber maid, or cleaner of boots, solicits his charity as in England—they are all paid by their employers, as well as the coachmen who drive the stages.—This is very creditable to the regulations of the country. Travelling is expeditious; the Eastern mail stage runs at

the rate of eight miles an hour. The horses are hardy, possess a good deal of mettle, and are capable of doing much work.—Every civility and attention is experienced on the road.

My design of penetrating farther northward, and a projected visit to the Falls of Niagara were now to be cut short by the receipt of despatches, in a quick arrival from Liverpool requiring my speedy presence in the West Indies. Availing myself of the opportunity of a schooner bound to the island of my destination, I embarked and bade farewell to this far famed land of freedom and happiness.

ART. IV.—*Analytical Notice of the Quarterly Review*, No. XXXII. for April, 1817.

THE Quarterly Review, contains the following articles:—‘1. *An Authentic Narrative of the loss of the American brig Commerce, &c.*—By James Riley, late Master and Supercargo. 8vo. New-York, 1816.’ Captain Riley’s Narrative, which the Reviewers speak highly of, as a very interesting and authentic account, having been noticed at length, in our Number for April last, and being so well known in this country, it will be needless for us to dwell upon it now. Our readers, however, will feel interested in the following intelligence copied from the Review.

‘Sidi Hamet, who makes so conspicuous a figure in this volume, is no fictitious personage, like his namesake Cid Hamet Benangeli; he is mentioned by Adams and by Dupuis; and, since Riley’s release, has to a certain extent redeemed the pledge which he made at parting: ‘Your friend (Mr. Willshire) has fed me with milk and honey, and I will always in future do what is in my power to redeem Christians from slavery.’ Scarcely two months after this, the brig *Surprize*, of Glasgow, with a crew of seventeen persons and three passengers, was cast away close to Cape Bojador, on the 28th of December, 1815, when the whole, with the exception of two that were drowned, fell into the hands of the Arabs, who marched them, as usual, into the interior, till they met a Moor on horseback, to whom they were delivered, and who took them to Wed-noon. This was no other than Sidi Hamet, who advised them to write to Mr. Willshire, English consul at Suara, who having heard of the wreck, had already entered into engagements for their ransom with Sidi Ishem, the chief of Wed-noon, and principal owner of the caravan which perished, as we have related, in the Desert. They were ransomed, and sent to England, as was also, at the same time, a lad of the name of Alexander Scott, who was wrecked in the *Montezuma*, of Liverpool, in 1810, as mentioned by Adams, and who had remained in slavery ever since. His appearance is said to have been most deplorable; though not twenty, he wore the marks of advanced age. Thus, in a very remarkable manner, have all the statements of Robert Adams been confirmed. We think it is by no means improbable, that Sidi Hamet was on his way to fulfil the oath which he swore to Riley ‘by his right hand’—that he would bring up the remainder of his crew if they were to be found alive, and God spared his life!

‘It appears, indeed, from letters which Riley has received in America from Mr. Willshire, that Porter and Burns have been ransomed by him; that two others had been released from further suffering in this

world; and that Sidi Ishem had heard some vague rumours of the rest in the southern part of the Desert.

‘It is to be hoped, indeed, that since the Arabs of the Desert know that all Christians wrecked on the coast will be purchased immediately at Wed-noon, for the purpose of obtaining a certain profit by their ransom at Mogadore, the lives of the captives will not only be preserved, but that the certainty of the reward will operate on the avarice of the robbers, and secure to the shipwrecked mariners a treatment less rigorous than that experienced by Mr. Riley and his unfortunate companions.’

The following letter from the English edition, in 4to, of Riley’s narrative, confers additional credit on his story.

24 Broad Street Buildings, 25th March, 1817.

‘SIR—If my opinion respecting Mr. Riley and his Narrative can be of any importance, it is much at your service: and in compliance with your request I shall now state for your information, such circumstances as have come to my knowledge.

‘The first intelligence I received relating to Mr. Riley was from Mr. Willshire, (who conducts my commercial establishment at Mogadore) who, as a matter of course, informed me of the shipwreck and subsequent ransom from slavery of Mr. Riley and his fellow sufferers.

‘About three months ago I received a letter from Mr. Riley dated from New-York, informing me of his intention to publish his Narrative, and on my mentioning the circumstance to my friend Mr. Green, his majesty’s consul-general at Tangier, then lately arrived in England, he spoke of Mr. Riley, with whom he became acquainted at Tangier, in the highest terms, and assured me he considered him as a very intelligent and well informed man, and very capable of giving an accurate account of his observations.

‘Soon after this I received letters from the American consul-general at Tangier, James Simpson, Esq. whose account of Mr. Riley was equally favourable with Mr. Green’s, and from the well known judgment and experience of both these gentlemen, and their personal knowledge of the author, I think great weight will be attached to such very respectable testimony in his favour.

‘I also received a short time ago a letter from Mr. Willshire, of Mogadore, of which the following is an extract:—“I shall always reflect with pleasure on that day that made me acquainted with Mr. Riley; and it gives me great satisfaction to learn that he intends to publish an edition of his work in England, for which he not only possesses ability, but has also very considerable influence with his own government, and in consequence of it Mr. Simpson has been empowered (by the government of the United States) with very extensive limits to redeem American shipwrecked citizens in this country.”

‘With respect to the narrative itself, it is with great deference that I submit any opinion of mine on its merits; but having resided several years at Mogadore, and having travelled several times over a considerable part of the country he describes, it is but a common act of justice to say, that I think he has given a very accurate description of what he has seen. Judging, therefore, from that part of his travels which accords with my own personal observations, it is I think fair in me to conclude that the remainder is described with equal veracity. His description of

the country from Santa Cruz to Mogadore, and from thence to Tangier, his account of the Arabs, and observations of their manners and customs are, I think, very correct.

‘I am not able to form a judgment of his friend Sidi Hamet’s account of Tombuctoo, but I must confess that in the principal points, it agrees with the descriptions I have heard related by several Moorish merchants that have been there.

‘I am, Sir, your most obedient servant,

‘JAMES RENSHAW.’

John Murray, Esq. Albemarle Street.

Art. 2. ‘1. *M. Tullii Ciceronis Sex Orationum Fragmenta inedita, cum Commentariis antiquis etiam ineditis. Invenit, recensuit, notis illustravit Angelus Maius, Bibliothecæ Ambrosianæ à Linguis Orientalibus. Mediolani. 1814. 2 tom. 8vo.*

‘2. *Q. Aurelii Symmachiocto Orationum ineditarum partes. Invenit, notisque declaravit A. Maius. Mediol. 1815. 8vo.*

‘3. *M. Cornelii Frontonis Opera inedita, cum Epistulis item ineditis Antonini Pii, M. Aurelii, L. Veri, et Appiani. Invenit A. Maius. Mediol. 1815. 2 tom. 8vo.*

‘4. *M. Acci Plauti Fragmenta inedita: item ad P. Tarentium Commentationes et Picturæ ineditæ. Inventore A. Maio. Mediol. 1815. 8vo.*

‘5. *Themistii Philosophi Oratio de Præfectura suscepta. Inventore et interprete A. Maio. Mediol. 1816. 8vo.*

‘6. *Dionysii Halicarnassei Romanarum Antiquitatum pars hæcenus desierata—Nunc denique ope Codicum Ambrosianorum ab Angelo Maio, quantum licuit, restituta. Opus Francisco I. Augusto sacrum. Mediol. 1816. 4to.*

These are fragments of ancient authors discovered by M. Angelo Mai among the manuscripts of the Ambrosian library. During the middle ages, materials for MSS. became scarce, and the monks were in the habit of obliterating the ancient MSS. in the libraries, by washing or by erasure, to make them serve for the pious legends of the day. This has probably caused the destruction of many an ancient author, now irrecoverably lost to us. Ancient MSS. so treated were called *Codices palimpsesti*, or *rescripti*. We have thus lost many works of ancient writers; but are not those that remain enough for all useful purposes?

‘The history of these MSS. is somewhat curious. The following account is extracted from a Dissertation of Mr. Mai. In the year 612, Columbanus founded a convent of Benedictines at Bobbio, anciently Bobbium, a town situated amongst the northernmost Appennines. This religious society, as Tiraboschi informs us, was remarkable not only for the sanctity of its manners, but for the cultivation of literature,—of course it possessed a considerable collection of manuscripts; and Muratori has published a catalogue of that collection, written in the tenth century, in which are the names of several grammarians, historians, orators, and poets. The Ambrosian Library, being founded at the beginning of the seventeenth century by the cardinal Federigo Borromeo, was enriched by him with a great number of manuscripts, collected at

a vast expense from various quarters, especially from Thessaly, Chios, Corcyra, and Magna Græcia.* In addition to these, he gained possession, by means of large presents, of the most valuable books of the Bobian collection, which are still distinguished in the Ambrosian Library by the title of *Codices Bobiani*. It is obvious, that amongst these, all of which are mentioned in the catalogue published by Muratori, some must be of very considerable antiquity; and those which are *palmæsceti* must be of great antiquity; because they were obsolete and disused at the time of their being re-written; which must have been before the tenth century.

Art. 3.—*Narrative of a Residence in Ireland during the Summer of 1814, and that of 1815.* By Anne Plumptre, Author of *Narrative of a Three Years' Residence in France, &c.* illustrated with numerous Engravings of Remarkable Scenery. London. 4to. pp. 398.' This is a very abusive review of Miss Plumptre's book, in the modern stile of sarcastic criticism; though it must be confessed the lady has afforded some room for critical severity. It must not be taken, however, for a fair account of the book, as we are presented with no extract or specimen unless such as are fit for the dissecting knife of the Reviewer. Miss Plumptre it seems, like so many other "fashionables" in England, is a mineralogist.

Art. 4.—*Travels in Brazil, by Henry Koster, 4to. 501 pages.* London. 1816.' This appears to be a sensible, plain-written book, concerning a part of Brazil little known to travellers. It is not a scientific work, but well calculated to give a fair view of the morals and manners of the country. The reviewers commend it highly.

Art. 5.—*The Veils, or the Triumph of Constancy. A Poem, in Six Books.* By Miss Porden. 8vo. London. 1816.' This is a kind of mineralogical poem, wherein as in Pope's Rape of the Lock, and Darwin's Loves of the Plants, the Rosicrucian Sylphs and Gnomes are enlisted by Miss Porden to form the machinery of the poem. It appears to contain many fine passages, not merely of smooth rhyme, but of imagery and description in the spirit of true poetry. The extracts given by the reviewers seem to justify this character.

Art. 6.—*Laou-sing-urh, or 'An Heir in his Old Age,' a Chinese Drama. Translated from the Original Chinese.* By J. F. Davis, Esq. of Canton. To which is prefixed a Brief View of the Chinese Drama, and of their Theatrical Exhibitions. Small 8vo. pp. 164. London. 1818.' The Chinese it appears have a collection of a hundred dramas, of which two have now been translated; one into French by Father Premare; viz. *The Orphan of China* (or of Tchao) and from French into English; the other is called *Laou-sing-urh, or An Heir in his Old Age*, the present drama, translated directly from the Chinese into English, by Mr. Davis, of the Canton factory; beside which, we have also in English the *Hau-hion-tchuan*, a novel, translated by Mr. Wilkinson, and published by Dr. Percy: this, with the emperor Kien Long's famous

Ode in praise of Tea, and a small volume by Mr. Davis, are nearly all the specimens we possess in English, of Chinese Belles Lettres, in an authentic form.

The present drama is founded on the national prejudice among the Chinese, of the necessity each father feels himself under, of having a son if possible, to perpetuate the family name, and perform the usual posthumous ceremonies. Hence, if a Chinese have no son by his first wife, and is not likely to have any, he may take a second wife for the purpose, during the life of the first.

In the present drama, the story turns upon the second wife becoming pregnant of a son; being hated by the old man's son-in-law on that account, she is privately removed and concealed by the son-in-law's wife, until the proper opportunity occurs of discovering and presenting her and her son to the old man, who has been long lamenting her supposed disease.

There is nothing in this plot, or in the character, or in the dialogue, that affords us any higher idea of Chinese talent than we have already. They seem, from all we know of that nation, to be comparatively an ignorant and imbecile people.

To this review of the play in question, is added, an account so far as the circumstances are yet known, of Lord Amherst's rejection at the court of the emperor of China. This account no where else that we know of to be found in any authentic detail, imperfect as it is, our readers will thank us for extracting.

Recent accounts from the embassy state, that on the arrival of the ships in the gulph of Pe-tche-lee, on the 28th July, two military officers came off from the shore, and expressed some surprise at their having reached that anchorage in so short a time after notice had been first received of the embassy; and it was evident that no preparations had been made for its reception. Two days afterwards, however, the same officers returned with intelligence that three mandarins of rank had been appointed to attend the ambassador to the capital; the first of the name of *Quong*, the imperial legate, and a Tartar; the second, *Chang*, a civilian; the third, *Yin*, a military officer; being the exact counterparts of the three *Ta-jin*, or great men, appointed to wait on Lord Macartney; and, to make the parallel complete, the Tartar legate announced his intention of receiving the ambassador on shore, while the other two paid their respects to him on board the *Alceste*. They brought with them a fleet of junks, as on the former occasion, containing the imperial present of refreshments for the ships' crews, intended also, when unloaded, to convey back the presents and baggage of the ambassador and his suite. The present did not contain such a vast profusion of hogs, fowls, pumpkins, and pears, as on the former occasion, from the want, most probably, of a longer notice to provide them; but it was ample; and the friendly attentions of these two men, as well as the conciliating manners of the legate, held out the promise of a favourable and honourable reception in Pekin. Two circumstances, however, were casually mentioned, that in some degree cast a damp over this agreeable prospect. In the first place, it was rumoured among the Chinese on shore that the emperor would set out for Gehol, in Tartary, on the 9th September, previously to which, he would receive the ambassador in Pekin, and give him his final audience of leave: secondly, the two man-

darins *Chang* and *Yin* insinuated pretty plainly that the usual ceremony of prostration would be expected from the ambassador; if the former point was not got over, it was quite evident that no time would be allowed for the transaction of any kind of business, and the question of the ceremony was considered as a point of vital importance—as, on the refusal or compliance with this degrading and humiliating demand, England must continue to maintain, in the eyes of this haughty government, that high rank and independent spirit for which she had hitherto been known to them, or set the seal of vassalage to her submission, and be registered among the number of their petty tributaries. However, as these men seemed not to have any positive instructions on that head; and as every thing hitherto had been conducted on the same plan and principles as heretofore, it was hoped that no such concession would be persisted in, or any material deviation be demanded, inconsistent with the precedent established by lord Macartney.

Some little objection was at first made to the number of persons attached to the embassy, which, with the guard, band of music, and servants, amounted to seventy-five; the orders from Peking limiting the number to fifty. The objection, however, was immediately removed, and a fleet of more than thirty commodious barges appointed to carry them up the river to Tong-shoo, within twelve miles of the capital; and so studious were they to follow the former precedent, that a vessel was prepared to receive two cows, to supply the English with milk for their tea.

Here ends our direct information from the embassy; the rest is from Chinese authority, which is, in fact, no authority at all; the most audacious falsehoods were daily published when the former embassy was in the country, and lord Macartney had constant occasion to observe, that 'their ideas of the obligations of truth were very lax;' besides, whatever appears in the Peking Gazette is prepared solely and exclusively for the Chinese. No foreigner is supposed to know any thing of what passes in China. It would seem then, from this gazette, that the emperor had not seen the ambassador, nor received the regent's letter and presents; and that the reason assigned for this unfriendly proceeding was the refusal, on the part of lord Amherst, to go through the degrading ceremony required from all the petty kingdoms nominally under the protection of the empire; a ceremony which, as we have stated, is the sign and seal of their vassalage. This ceremony requires the person to fall down at the word of command on both knees, and, on another word being given by a kind of herald, to bow the head nine distinct times to the ground. It has been conjectured, that our quarrel with the Nepaulese had some share in the untoward circumstances of the embassy; but this is not likely; much less is it so that the emperor should have been first informed of that quarrel by lord Amherst. He had in fact appointed a general, and marched an army through Tartary to Thibet, long before the arrival of the embassy; and that general reached Lassa about the same time that lord Amherst arrived at Tien-Sing. The first appearance of discontent is manifested at the circumstance of the ships leaving the gulf of Pe-tshe-lee without orders; it insinuates that these ships went off for some bad purpose, and with the design of examining the coast; and circular orders were sent to the officers of the maritime provinces, directing them not to permit the ships to anchor, or a single man to land,

but to desire them immediately to proceed to Macao, and there to wait the arrival of the ambassador. This ignorant government could not conceive the danger of a large ship of war lying at anchor in the middle of an extensive gulf, in less than four fathoms water, and eleven miles from shore, at a time too when the change of the monsoon was momentarily expected, and when those horrible hurricanes called typhoons prevail, and in one of which, in fact, the *Alceste* was caught in her return to the southward:—deceitful in all its proceedings; its conduct at variance with all its moral and political maxims; it could only impute bad motives to measures of necessary precaution, though the same measures had also been adopted by sir Erasmus Gower on the former occasion.

The danger, in fact, was stated to the legate and the two mandarins; and so well satisfied were they with the reasons assigned for not remaining in that open anchorage, that they furnished captain Maxwell with a letter, ordering the provincial authorities, wherever he might touch, to supply the wants of the ships. If they neglected to inform his imperial majesty of this circumstance, they alone were to blame. However they did not trouble the coast of China; they stood across the gulf of Leatong, saw the great wall, winding up one side of steep mountains and descending the other, down into the very gulf; and instead of meeting with the eastern coast of Corea, where it appears on our charts, they fell in with an archipelago of a thousand islands, among which were the most commodious and magnificent harbours; the real coast of the Corean peninsula being at least 120 miles farther to the eastward. From hence they proceeded to the Leiou-Kieou islands, where they met with a harbour equal to that of Port Mahon, and with the most friendly reception from the poor but kind-hearted people of those islands. Finally, from hence they stood across direct for Canton.

In the mean time the embassy proceeded to Peking; and on their arrival at Tien-Sing, so it is stated in the gazette before us, a grand entertainment was given to lord Amherst, agreeably with the established ceremonies of the empire; for which, however, his lordship is said not to have been sufficiently thankful. Another edict, bearing date the 28th of August, announces the arrival of the ambassador at Peking, bearing a letter and tribute from the king of England; and another edict, in the next day's gazette, proclaims the conclusion of the mission, orders it to quit Peking the same day, points out its route through the provinces to Canton, commands the great officers of the provinces and the criminal judges to attend the ambassador, together with a large military escort; and it is difficult to say whether suspicion, weakness, or pusillanimity most preponderates in the precautions dictated in these absurd orders; or whether petulance or timidity is most apparent in them. It states that the letter and presents have not been received, because the ambassador could not present them; and the reason for not presenting them is thus announced:

'This was the day which his imperial majesty had appointed to receive lord Amherst, the ambassador from the king of England; but when he came to the door of the interior palace, he was suddenly taken so ill that he could neither walk nor move. The second ambassador' (sir George Staunton) 'was also affected in the same manner; they could not therefore have the happiness of receiving the gracious favours and the presents of the celestial emperor.'

This sickness of the ambassador is a stale trick of the Chinese; the explanation of which we conjecture to be this: On finding that lord Am-

herst was inflexible, they endeavoured to ensnare him by an apparent relaxation of the demand, when on arriving at the hall of audience he detected their stratagem, and resisted the attempt to enforce the ceremony, which they would have made no scruple to do. The autocrat of two hundred millions of people could not at once tell his slaves that a foreign ambassador *would* not, he therefore qualified the refusal with suggesting that he *could* not, through sickness, see his 'heavenly face.'

The ambassador did not, however, leave Peking on the 29th August, in conformity with the imperial mandate: it was generally believed in Canton that he did not set out on the journey till the 7th September; what happened in the intermediate time does not appear, but on the 6th September another edict was published. It begins by noticing the grand banquet given at Tien-Sing; the refusal of the ambassador to comply with the prostrations there, with which his imperial majesty was not made acquainted, and for which neglect the two mandarins, *Quong* and *Yin*, were ordered to be degraded three degrees; and it proceeds to say, that the ambassador was lodged at a certain place, called *Yu-yuen*, near the capital, that from thence he was conducted to the imperial palace,

'Where (observes his Chinese majesty) I was just about to ascend the throne to receive them, when the first and second were both taken ill, and could not appear before me. In consequence of which I ordered them instantly to return to their own country, for it then occurred to me, that they had declined to comply with the ceremonies of the celestial empire. With respect to their king who sent them on so long a voyage across the vast ocean, to present to me a letter and to offer tribute, it was undoubtedly his intention to pay us homage, and to obey our commands, which mark of submission we are unwilling entirely to reject, lest we also should fail to observe one of the fundamental rules of the celestial empire, that of affording our protection to petty kingdoms. For this reason we have thought fit to select the most trifling and least valuable of his articles of tribute: namely, four maps, two portraits, and ninety-five prints, which we receive in order to confer some marks of our grace and favour. We have also ordered presents to be given to the king in return, namely, a *Yu-she*, four large and eight small silk purses; to be conveyed to the said king; and this we do in conformity with the ancient and accustomed rules of the celestial empire, of making rich gifts in return for things of little value. The ambassadors on the receipt of these presents were much delighted, and showed evident signs of surprise and astonishment.'

Well, indeed, they might!—This extraordinary state-paper then proceeds to order the viceroy of Canton to prepare an entertainment for the ambassador, and dictates the speech he is to make on that occasion, which is nearly a repetition of what we have quoted; and it concludes by saying, 'should the ambassador again entreat that the rest of the presents may be received, you are merely to say, we have express orders to the contrary from the celestial emperor, and we dare not again offend his ears—and with these words you will reject their supplications.' Preparations were accordingly making by the viceroy for a grand entertainment when the last ships came away, and he had sent a notice to the chief of the factory, that he had received the emperor's letter to the king of England, which would be delivered to the ambassador on his arrival.

These edicts contain all that was known at Canton of the proceedings of the embassy. It is clear enough, however, from them, that it had failed; that is to say, that the ambassador had saved his own character and the character of the nation he represented, at the expense of foregoing the

gratification of beholding the dazzling rays of the 'celestial countenance,' and having the valuable presents sent out by the East India Company returned upon their hands. This is the sum total of the failure; for we must repeat, that not only has the national character been upheld by the refusal of lord Amherst to comply with a disgusting and degrading ceremony, which a former English and a Russian ambassador had also refused; but that, individually, he will have experienced more consideration and attention from those very people who have failed in their attempts to degrade him, and, through him, the whole nation; for the less that is conceded to this pusillanimous and insolent people, the more will their fears for the consequence begin to operate. What the issue of the embassy would have been, provided lord Amherst had waved all personal considerations, and submitted to undergo the degrading ceremony, may be collected from the extreme condescension of the two Dutch ambassadors, Titsingh and Van Braam. After lord Macartney's *failure*, as it was also called, these two men imagined that a fine opening was afforded to the Dutch to obtain, by an unconditional submission, all that the English had lost by their obstinate refusal. They began at Canton to bow their heads nine times to the ground before a yellow screen; to thank the emperor for having graciously condescended to permit them to appear before him with a letter and tribute; and, before their return, they were brought on their knees and bowed their heads to the ground ninety-nine times at least,—'pour faire le salut d'honneur,' as Van Braam, with true Batavian composure, calls this humiliating ceremony;—but after all this compliance on the part of the Dutch, when they found themselves in the capital, thrust into a stable where some cart horses were standing, poor Van's phlegm began to move a little, and he ventures to exclaim, 'Nous serions-nous attendus à une pareille aventure!' ; This was not all; for they were passed through the country literally like so many vagrants; lodged in wretched hovels neither wind nor water tight; left sometimes by their bearers, perched in chairs in the midst of heaths, or on the summits of mountains; frequently without any provisions for whole days; and, in short, went through so many hardships, that Van Braam, who was a large man, says that he had lost on his return a full foot in circumference! whereas, in the case of lord Macartney, far from manifesting any petulance or ill humour, which might have been expected from mortified pride, the Chinese showed every attention to the ambassador and his suite during the whole of their progress through the country.

But why object, we have heard it asked, to a ceremony which is the established usage of the country? Lord Macartney, we think, has satisfactorily answered that question in urging 'the propriety of distinguishing between the homage of tributary princes, and the ceremony used on the part of a great and independent sovereign;' and 'that it could not be expected that an ambassador of an independent sovereign should pay a greater homage to a foreign prince than to his own master, unless the compliment was made reciprocal.' It is not true that the Chinese think little or nothing of their humiliating ceremony; had that been the case, the court of ceremonies would not have objected to lord Macartney's proposal of a person with equal rank to his own performing the same ceremony before the king's portrait that he should be required to perform before the emperor. We know not of course, whether lord Amherst was prepared to propose this reciprocity of compliment; but if he

did, and it was not accepted, he was perfectly right in refusing as lord Macartney had done. We cannot conceive a case where the representative of the sovereign of Great Britain should submit to a degradation which the representative of the emperor Alexander had peremptorily resisted. The disappointment in not succeeding could not be more mortifying, or the refusal less excusable, for lord Amherst than for count Goloffkin; the latter, after a long and fatiguing journey across the woods and deserts of Siberia, was stopped short just as he came in view of the promised land, and turned back, because he would neither bow the knee to the yellow skreen, nor promise to do so to the Baal himself, on his presentation at Pekin.

We have heard it asserted that the Chinese protested against the case of lord Macartney being drawn into a precedent; and that lord Amherst was instructed to comply with the customary ceremonies: the first we *know* to be false; and the other we have every reason to *believe* to be so; it is not likely he should be instructed either to comply or to refuse, but to act according to his own discretion and to circumstances. If it be asked; Why send an embassy at all? the Directors of the East India Company can best answer such a question. They only, and their servants, know the comparative situation of their affairs at Canton, before and after the mission of lord Macartney: since that mission, a new generation has sprung up; old grievances were revived; all manner of vexatious impediments and insulting conduct were daily directed against our trade, and those who conducted it; the native servants were forbidden to engage themselves to Europeans; and the latter were prohibited from addressing the local authorities in the Chinese language, which is the only language they understand; supplies of provisions were stopped to his majesty's ships, and cargoes withheld from those of the company; the magistrates entered the factory without permission or previous notice; and many other offensive proceedings were instituted, which seemed too plainly to indicate a disposition to return to a system of oppression and insult, which, though it might have been submitted to in the early stage of our intercourse, could scarcely now be endured. In this state of things, the gentlemen of the factory, two years ago, came to the spirited resolution of withdrawing the whole of the ships of the season (with their cargoes yet unloaded) from the river, and of appealing at once to the court of Pekin: and sir George Staunton, who conducted the difficult and delicate discussions, was under the necessity of actually removing the British flag from the factory, and proceeding down the river to carry their intentions into effect, when the natural timidity of the Chinese got the better of their insolence; and a deputation was sent after him to entreat his return and continue the negociations. It might, therefore, and probably was, deemed advisable to remind these corrupt provincial authorities, by another embassy, that the gentlemen of the English factory at Canton were not a set of unprotected adventurers, as they were inclined to consider them. Beyond the wish of obtaining justice and protection for our trade, the East India Company could have nothing to ask; and when we consider the magnitude and importance of that trade which employs from England more than 20,000 tons of shipping, and from India nearly the same amount—which takes from us broad cloths to the amount of one million sterling, and cottons from Bombay to double that value—which enables, by its profits, the East India Company to pay their dividends, and brings annually into the exche-

quer from three to four millions sterling—finally, which supplies an article not merely of luxury, but now almost become one of the first necessity, and which no other part of the world can supply—the preservation of such a trade from capricious obstructions, and vexatious impositions and delays, is well worth the risk even of offending his imperial majesty, who is generally contented with visiting his anger upon his own subjects. If an embassy produced no other effect, as one of the directors justly observed, ‘one hundred thousand pounds would be well expended every ten or twelve years, to save our people from insult and our trade from interruption.’

‘Little mischief as we apprehend from the *failure* of the embassy, we are not quite at ease with regard to the affair of the *Alceste* engaging with the Chinese forts. The Chinese have at all times been jealous of our men of war entering the river, and we believe complaints on this score have been made by the Company’s servants of the factory, who of course can exercise no control over officers of the navy; but the *Alceste* was placed under extraordinary circumstances; she had carried out an ambassador on a pacific mission; she was ordered to Canton to refit and prepare for the reception of that ambassador; her captain had a letter from the viceroy of Pe-tche-lee, ordering the authorities to supply her wants wherever she might touch. It would appear, therefore, that the Chinese admiral and the commanders of the forts, in wantonly firing at the *Alceste*, had exceeded their orders; and this may explain why no notice whatever had been taken of the affair at Canton; where Captain Maxwell had been four days, when the last letters came away; at which time neither the preparations for the reception of Lord Amherst, nor the loading of the Company’s ships, had suffered the least interruption. We understand, indeed, that our long forbearance has had no other effect than that of encouraging the Chinese war-junks and forts to fire on our ships of commerce and their boats, on every frivolous pretext, which, though generally harmless, is a wanton and reprehensible aggression. This forbearance must have its bounds; it is not every man who can carry it to that pitch of endurance exercised by the late admiral O’Brien Drury. On the memorable expedition against Macao, this gallant officer found the river near Canton blocked up by armed junks, having thousands of Chinese on board. ‘Apprehending’ (he observes in a letter to his friend) ‘that they might fire their little petards, I advanced in my barge to explain to their admiral my peaceable intentions. When within about a hundred yards, they fired a shot which passed over the barge; I still advanced; two or three more shot passed over us: I came within forty yards; but in endeavouring to make myself heard, through my Chinese interpreter, all their junks opened their fire on my boat, with stones, and God knows what, until one of the marines was struck. The seamen in the other boats, seeing me fired at so furiously, were no longer under control, but pulled close up, when I saw the necessity of giving them positive orders to keep back, well knowing that the total annihilation of their poor junks, and of the city of Canton, must have been the inevitable consequence, had I permitted a single musket to be fired, which was impatiently looked for by every one. I told the chief of the supercargoes,’ continues the brave admiral, ‘that I never would consent to the slaughter of these defenceless multitudes; but that if their commerce required to be supported by hostilities,

and that if a single seaman of mine was killed, I would level Canton to the ground.'

Whatever may be the issue of the untoward circumstances connected with the embassy to China, by what particular point of exaction on the one side, and of resistance on the other, the failure may have been occasioned, in the absence of all information but that which his Chinese majesty has been pleased to give, we can merely form conjectures: but, in the well known character of lord Amherst, particularly distinguished as it is by a suavity of manners, an equal temper, and a mild and conciliating disposition, joined to the able support of sir George Staunton, who, with a perfect knowledge of the language and the people, possesses that calm and steady determination which is best suited to deal with this subtle nation we have the best pledges that the honour and the interests of the nation will not be compromised, but remain safe in their hands. If the Nepaul business should be found, which, however, we think not likely, to have influenced the conduct of the Chinese, they are the veriest bunglers in politics that ever existed, since they might have obtained something by a conciliatory negotiation; whereas, if their army should, unfortunately for it, come in contact with our Sepoys, their miserable soldiers with their paper helmets, wadded gowns, quilted petticoats, and stuffed boots, will be too happy to compound for their lives by a surrender at discretion.

Art. 7. '*Fragments on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening, including some remarks on Grecian and Gothic Architecture, collected from various MSS. in the possession of the different Noblemen and Gentlemen for whose use they were originally designed. The whole tending to establish fixed principles in the respective Arts.* By H. Repton, Esq. assisted by his Son, J. Adey Repton, F.A.S. Imperial 4to. pp. 238. 1816.' The art of laying out grounds to produce the most picturesque effect that the nature of the place will admit, constitutes the *modern art of English gardening*, little known among the other nations of Europe, and not known at all with us. On the continent of Europe, the beauties of gardening are produced by means plainly and manifestly artificial; and the effect is, something highly ornamented, and perfectly distinct from the scenery of nature. In England, the art of laying out pleasure grounds, was gradually introduced by Kent, and greatly improved by Brown, usually known by the name of Capability Brown. Since Brown's day, the affectation of imitating natural scenery has been carried too far, either by applying the scenery to situations too diminutive, or not calculated to harmonize with the stile of the surrounding country, or by imitating those parts of natural scenery, which are too rough to be pleasing or ornamental. We object too, to that intermixture of nature and art, usually called the *ferme ornée*; as being neither the one thing or the other, like so many of the shabby edifices with which our carpenters and bricklayers have disgraced and disfigured the city of Philadelphia.

The first of these observations will apply to the Leasowes, the second struck us at Hagley, the third at Mr. Morris's place on the

Wye, and the last is so common in England among the gentlemen farmers, and farming gentlemen of that country, as to obtrude itself frequently. Repton in his former volumes on Landscape Gardening, to which this is a supplement, introduced some common sense notions of convenience, which the ultra imitators of natural scenery, King and Price, attacked as a departure from the settled principles of the genuine English School. But if they must be considered as innovations, they are nevertheless great improvements, encroaching upon nature no farther than convenience manifestly requires; at any rate, the ladies of the family will thank him for them. Whenever a taste for this delightful branch of science and of art, shall begin to manifest itself in this country, Repton's treatises will be the classics of amateurs. The Reviewers speak of Repton's book in terms of deserved approbation.

Art. 8. '*Tales of My Landlord*. 4 vols. 12mo. Third Edition. Blackwood, Edinburgh. John Murray, London. 1817.'—This is a very elaborate review of a work which every body in this country has read. It is not merely a review of the '*Tales of My Landlord*,' but a laborious investigation how far they are consistent with the real histories of the times, and the transactions referred to. It is a review very creditable to the reviewer, whose sentiments of the work, of course, are highly favourable.

Art. 9.—1. *An Appeal to the British Nation on the Treatment experienced by Napoleon Bonaparte in the Island of St. Helena*. By M. Santini, Porter of the Emperor's Closet.

'2. *Official Memoir dictated by Napoleon, being a Letter from Count de Montholon to Sir Hudson Lowe*. Fourth Edition, with a Preface. 8vo. pp. 79. London. 1817.'

'3. *A Tour through the Island of St. Helena, &c. with some particulars respecting the Arrival and Detention of Napoleon Bonaparte*. By Captain John Barnes, Town Major, and Civil and Military Surveyor in the Hon. Company's Services on the Island. 12mo. pp. 239. London. 1817.'

'4. *Manuscrit venu de St. Helene d'une maniere inconnue*. Troisieme Edition. 8vo. pp. 151. London. 1817.'

This is, as we may well suppose from the character of the review, a violent attack on Bonaparte and his adherents, and on the statements of Santini, and Count Montholon. If what they say be true, there is a shameful want even of decent attention to the supply of Bonaparte's table: a disgraceful economy, that seems dictated by the most unworthy motives.

On the part of the ministry, the charge was repelled by Lord Bathurst in the house of commons; and the statement made by that nobleman of provisions and liquors directed for the maintenance of Bonaparte and his suite at St. Helena, showed that it was on a scale sufficiently liberal, affording no reasonable ground for complaint.

Both statements may be true. The British ministry may have given the directions which Lord Bathurst declared were given, and yet Bonaparte may not have received the supplies intended for him. To refute fully the disgraceful accounts of Santini and Montholon,

the ministry should not only have directed these supplies to be purchased, but they should have ensured their regular delivery, and required as a check, the receipt of Bonaparte, or some person of repute in his household, for the articles actually received. This would have prevented all complaint, and set contradiction at defiance: but they have not done so: and they have therefore left room for reasonable doubt, whether the charges are not true in substance, although the expense of a liberal supply may have been willingly incurred. The bitter style of the Reviewers, is ill calculated to serve the cause they defend.

Art. 10.—1. *Report of the Secret Committee.*

‘2. *On the present State of Public Affairs.* Anon. 8vo.

‘3. *A Proposal for putting Reform to the Vote throughout the Kingdom.* By the Hermit of Marlow. 8vo.’

We have the same remark to make on this “Essay on the rise and progress of popular dissatisfaction.” It is a laboured defence of the ministry and their measures, and a violent attack on the friends of reform. To us it seems very imprudent to use the language of goading and irritation toward men who complain because they feel their own and the nation’s misery, and who call out for retrenchments on the part of government, which are so manifestly reasonable and practicable.

ART. V.—*American Entomology; or descriptions of the Insects of North America. Illustrated by coloured figures, from drawings executed from Nature.* By THOMAS SAY, Member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, &c. Philadelphia, published by Mitchell and Ames. 1817.

“Each moss,
Each shell, each crawling insect, holds a rank
Important in the plan of Him who framed
The scale of Being.”

STILLINGFLEET.

AT this enlightened period of the world, when almost every branch of knowledge, from being sufficiently understood, both in its principles, and its affinities to other branches, is duly appreciated; and in a country, distinguished alike for native good sense, and cultivated intellect; to address the readers of this Magazine, in commendation of Entomology, might well seem superfluous. Yet, singular as it may appear, that branch of science is not without its enemies, and open defamers—men, who not only deny its practical utility, but endeavour to degrade it, by representing it as a pursuit, puerile, barren, without interest, and altogether unworthy of an elevated mind.

In refutation of a calumny, as feeble as it is wanton, and which can redound only to the discredit of those who promulgate it, we might deem it sufficient, briefly to state, that Entomology constitutes a legitimate and very important branch of Zoology; a science, which, for beauty, elevation, and extensive usefulness, has no superior. But other arguments, more specific in their nature, and which may, therefore, perhaps, be held more pertinent to our purpose, are not wanting.

In the vast family of beings, of which it is the province of Entomology to treat, are comprised not a few of the most valuable friends, as well as many of the most troublesome and formidable enemies, of the human race. Hence it is the duty, no less than the interest, of man, to render himself intimately acquainted with both. But this he can do only by the study of the science.

This study, interesting and important in every country, may be regarded as peculiarly so in our own. Whether scientifically or practically considered, the insects of the United States, are but little known to us—less so, than those of any other civilized quarter of the globe. Yet have we motives numerous and cogent, beyond what can actuate the inhabitants of other countries, for directing our attention to inquiries respecting them.

To feel these motives, in their full force, we need only, in the spring, the summer, or the autumn, look into our fields or our forests, our gardens or our pleasure-grounds. The depredations there committed, on many of our most valuable vegetables, by some insects, and the destruction of these insects themselves, by others surpassing them in power and voracity, cannot fail to impress us with a deep sense of the advantages to be derived from a more liberal knowledge, than we, at present, possess, of that numerous and formidable family of beings.

It is the result of experience, as well as one of the plainest dictates of common sense, that a perfect acquaintance with the character of an enemy, furnishes the only true ground of successful opposition to him. In vain, therefore, will the farmers and gardeners of the United States, attempt to preserve the productions of the soil from the Hessian fly, the cut-worm, the aphides, the weevil, and the many hundreds of other insects which daily attack them, unless they inform themselves, more fully, of the history and character of those destroyers.

Similar observations might be made, in relation to the welfare of our domestic animals. Each one of these is liable to suffer, in many instances mortally, from the hostility of insects. Nor can we effect their security through any other means, than a thorough knowledge of the history of their enemies. But this knowledge the science of Entomology alone can impart.

We are even assailed in our persons, by numerous insects, against which a more intimate acquaintance with them would enable us to guard.

Indeed, strange, and, perhaps, extravagant as the assertion may appear, to those who have not attended to the subject, it is, notwithstanding, true, that the comforts and subsistence of man, are much more liable to be fatally invaded by the insect tribe, than by the whole animal kingdom besides. The lion, the tiger, the bear, or the wolf, may shed the blood of individuals, or even depopulate villages: but, to the locust, the palmer-worm, or some other family of the insect tribe, does it belong, to bring destruction or suffering on a whole people.

In our contemplation of this class of beings, it is not the *evils* alone, with which they threaten us, or are capable of inflicting on us, that we ought to consider. Our attention should be directed also to the *benefits* we derive from them.

To the *Lytta Vesicatoria*, are we indebted for an important remedy; to the bee, for one of the wholesomest and most delicious of our sweets; to the cochineal insect, for one of our richest dyes; and to the silk-worm, for our most beautiful and costly apparel. Surely, then, the history of that class of animals, among a part of which are found our deadliest foes, while, to another part, we are under the weightiest obligations, is worthy of our regard.

But, for the study of Entomology, there exist yet other reasons, which we are bound to respect. The science is not only becoming fashionable in the higher walks of life, in Europe, but is sanctioned by the names of many individuals, who, for talents and attainments, rank with the foremost in that quarter of the globe. To induce us to pursue it, therefore, in the United States, we have high authority.

Finally, if we wish to become more familiar with the attributes of the Deity, through the medium of his works, there is no source to which we can turn, with greater advantage, than to the science of Entomology.

Insects constitute, in themselves, a living world; in the arrangement and economy of which appears as glorious a display of goodness, wisdom, and power, as is to be found in any other department of nature. The vast variety and extent of action, the consummate adaptation of means to purposes, and the consequent order and harmony, which characterize this part of visible creation, bespeak in every portion of it, a hand that is divine. No one can attentively study it, and remain either incredulous of the existence and operations, or disregarding of the majesty and beneficence, of HIM who framed, and continues to govern it. If we are directed to the ant and the bee, to learn wisdom and industry, with equal propriety may we turn to many other families of the insect race, to improve in piety, and all the moral and social virtues.

Influenced by these considerations, we could scarcely fail to receive, with pleasure, a publication of any description, treating of the insects of the United States. We need not add, that this pleasure is greatly heightened, by the reception of a work of ample promise.

As this work, which is now before us, possesses many points of real excellence, we are gratified at being told, by the author, that it is nothing but a "portion of a publication of no inconsiderable magnitude, on the insects of North America."

It contains six plates and a frontispiece; each plate representing two insects, of the same species, the male and the female, or the same insect, in figures of different sizes, well delineated and accurately coloured.

The descriptions, accompanying the plates, are classical and correct. Most of the terms, however, being purely technical, ren-

ders a glossary highly necessary to the generality of readers; the more so, as explanations of entomological language, are not of easy access. Would it not be practicable for our author to give his promised glossary early in the course of his work?

By enriching his descriptions with more of the biography of insects, Mr. Say has it in his power to render his future numbers more interesting and useful.

Indeed the naturalist should never fail to bear in mind, that, in every department of Zoology, it is the biography of the animals described, which gives to the science its most practical tendencies, and its highest charm.

That part in which our author is most faulty, is his preface. Here, the composition is loose; the selection of words is not very fortunate; and the production bears, throughout, the marks of haste and inattention. These remarks relate to the preface only.

We must not close this article, without observing, that, on the whole, we are exceedingly pleased with Mr. Say's work: we find in it much to praise, and but little to blame; and can, therefore, honestly recommend it to the patronage of the public. C.

* * * The above review of Mr. Say's specimen of American Entomology, was transmitted to the editor, and it is right to the extent of the observations contained in it. But Mr. Say's work, though small in bulk, deserves more to be said of it, to show its value.

It is worthy of remark, that important as the subject of Entomology is to our interest and to our comfort, there have been very few scientific works in England upon it, and hardly any popular work, save a small part of Dr. Smellie's compilation on natural history, and the late popular Account of Entomology by Messrs. Kirby and Spence; of which, as yet, the first volume only, has reached America, though the second is printed. The English are greatly behind the science of the continent on the natural history of insects.

In this country, the late Revd. Mr. Melsheimer of Hanover, in York county, Pennsylvania, was very learned on the subject of insects. His collection was large, and the part of his catalogue which he published, ranks with the best arranged works on this branch of science. His son, who succeeded his father in the ministry at Hanover, still pursues the same course of study. By means of these gentlemen, the entomologists of Europe have been made acquainted with the treasures of this country, of which, its inhabitants, some three or four excepted, have remained perfectly ignorant. It was in vain Mr. Melsheimer published the first part of his well-digested catalogue; nobody purchased, nobody perused it. The expense remained a drawback on his scanty funds; the honour of his discoveries, was conferred on him by European philosophers; he died, comparatively, unknown.

In this state, (and indeed we may almost confine the observation to this state) two philosophical societies have been formed: the one of old standing, "*The American Philosophical Society*;" the other,

of four or five years date only, "*The Academy of Natural Science.*" The members of the first, hold their sittings, in Fifth near Chestnut street: the last, in Arch, near Front street. Four or five volumes, in quarto, have been published by the oldest of these societies, and the first volume of a new series of its transactions, is now in the press, and likely to do credit to the institution. The Academy of Natural Science, has published two or three small numbers of their proceedings, which are meant to be continued, as new matter, worthy of publication, presents itself. Of this society, Mr. Say is a distinguished member; and we may venture to predict that the gentlemen belonging to it, are likely to do more for American reputation in natural history, than any other institution in this country. The few pages they have already published, are honourable, not merely to the society, but to the nation, for the curious and the useful information they contain, unassuming as they are, and almost unknown. The present work of Mr. Say may be considered as an emanation from the same source; and we have had nothing published, on any branch of natural history in America, better calculated to raise its reputation abroad, than the small book now under review. It is common praise to say, that the delineations are accurate, the colouring respectable, the language scientifically descriptive of the subjects treated. The insects are coloured about as well as the birds in Wilson's Ornithology; but they are not equal in splendor and effect to Mad. Meiran's Surinam, or to Sep: they are good enough for all the purposes of real information, and better than we have yet seen here. All this is very well. But Mr. Say has started in the race of science with higher claims. The present number contains the following insects, viz.

Papilio Philenor; described by Drury, Cramer, Fabricius, and by Smith and Abbot, in their insects of Georgia.

Geotrupes Tityus; also described by preceding entomologists.

Nemognatha immaculata. This appears to be a new species, not hitherto described.

Notoxus Monodon. Described, but not hitherto figured.

Bertus Spinosus. Approaches to the *Tipularius* of Fabricius.

Cicindela formosa. The *cicindelæ trifasciata*, *sex guttata*, and *punctulata*, are well known. The *formosa* is new to the entomologists.

Cicindela decem notata. This is also a new species.

Hence it appears, that Mr. Say does not live upon the labours of his predecessors: he has already contributed his full share to the stock of knowledge, by bringing us acquainted with insects never before figured and described. Not to support such a work as this, would be disgraceful to the national character. We agree that it would be right to introduce more descriptions of the habits and manners, the uses and the mischiefs of the insects described; it would bring Mr. Say's work into more general circulation. C.

ART. VI.—*Adolphe, a Novel.* By M. Benjamin de Constant.—
Published by M. Carey & Son. 1817.

NOTWITHSTANDING the merit of some modern novels, by Miss Burney, Miss Edgeworth, Mrs. West, Mrs. Opie, and some other female writers in England, whose works are free from the grosser faults that are usually complained of in this species of composition, we are still of opinion, that novels have done, and still do, more harm than good. They universally tend to give force and effect to that passion, which, of all others, interferes most with the necessary restraints of civilized society—they tend to impress upon the youthful mind, that what is delineated under the name of Love, is the first object, the great business of human life, to which every other dictate of prudence and of duty, may be required to yield—they increase the vividness of those emotions, which the permanent happiness of young people themselves, require to be controlled, repressed, and subjected—and they give false ideas of the real nature and character of that connexion between the sexes, which the laws of every wise nation consider as the object of wholesome regulation and restraint. Nor is it among the slightest objections, that they always nourish and often give birth, to that sickly train of feelings commonly known by the name of *sentiment*. Hence, a novel-reading female, expects attention from a husband, which the cares of business will not permit him to pay; and a weak woman is left open to the flatteries of an idler who has time to throw away upon petty services, delicate attentions, sentiment and sensibility.—To make a novel useful, or at least not mischievous, all the obligations toward parents upon the subject of marriage, should be sedulously enforced: the duty of repressing desires that cannot be indulged, but at the sacrifice of prudence and of happiness, should be shown to be within reasonable effort; and to be indispensable, when indulgence cannot take place without obvious risk of all future prospects of succeeding in the difficult march of life: and the principle should be illustrated, that marriages, to be happy, should be entered into like other contracts, upon the common calculations of prudential motives; and do not require that violence of inclination so necessary to the character of every hero and heroine of a modern romance. Still less should scenes and conduct of manifest depravity be decked out with all the ornament of language, and treated as if they were at least excuseable, from the violence of passion, if not justifiable.

In the present novel, all the characters are morally detestable.—There is not one that common sense, and honest feelings, ought not to revolt at. The incidents are of the worst description; but the author endeavours to make them interesting by force of description and the charms of language; which, whatever may be its merit in the original, is execrable in the translation.

The characters are, Adolphe, his father, the Count de P., and Ellenor.

The first is a young man, who does not appear possessed of one good, great, or estimable quality. Unequal in his temper, morose

and sarcastic in his manners, he systematically seduces and debauches Ellinor, the kept mistress, during ten years, of the Count de P., who had received him into his family with all the kindness of hospitality. This he does, not because he was impelled from love to this woman, but from mere ennui—from vanity and self-love—not from an inclination to love, but a desire of being beloved.—“Tormented,” (as he expresses it, p. 37,) “by a vague emotion, “I will be loved, said I, and I looked around me. I saw no person who could inspire me with love—no person who seemed to “me susceptible of feeling it.” No wonder the female world, p. 105, “saw in his conduct, that of a seducer; of an ungrateful man “who had violated hospitality, and who to gratify a momentary “whim, had sacrificed the repose of two persons, of whom, he ought “to have respected the one, and have spared the other.”

The father is represented as a man who held light discourse on the ties of love (p. 35), who looked upon them as amusements, if not permitted, at least excusable; and who in his representations to his son on the subject of his intimacy with Ellinor, seems to confine himself not to considerations of morality, but of prudence only.

The count de P. had lived in open defiance of the customs of society, with Ellinor, publicly, as his kept mistress, and had children by her. He attempts to introduce her in that capacity into respectable society; and his views are represented as well seconded, by the prudent and affectionate conduct of Ellinor herself, till she elopes with the hero of the novel, Adolphe, and at length dies of a broken heart, not occasioned by reflections on her own misconduct, but by perceiving that Adolphe is becoming sated, and wearied of the connexion, which no longer holds out the charm of novelty. The conclusions deduced, are not those which a man of honour and morality would draw from the story; as the reader may judge from the following extract:

‘You ought, sir, to publish that anecdote. It cannot hereafter hurt any one, and could not be, in my opinion, without utility. The misfortune of Ellinor proves, that the most impassioned sentiment would be unable to struggle against the order of things. Society is too powerful: it reproduces itself under too many forms. It intermingles too much of bitterness with the love which it has not sanctioned. It favours that inclination for inconstancy, and that impatient fatigue, diseases of the mind, which seize it sometimes suddenly, in the bosom of intimacy. Indifferent persons have a wonderful eagerness to be slanderers in the name of morality, and noxious through zeal for virtue. It might be said that the view of affection troubles them, because they are incapable of it; and when they can avail themselves of a pretext, they delight in attacking it, and in destroying it. Wo then to the woman who reposes on a sentiment which every thing combines to poison, and against which society, when it is not compelled to respect it as legitimate, arms itself with all that is bad in the heart of man, to discourage all that is good in it!

‘The example of Adolphe will not be less instructive, if you add, that after having repelled the being who loved him, he has not been less uneasy, less agitated, and less discontented; that he has not made any use of a liberty regained at the expense of so much grief and of so many

tears; and that by rendering himself well deserving of blame, he has rendered himself also deserving of pity.'

The author has taken good care to do strict poetical justice, by making Ellenor, the deceived and seduced female, the most injured and least depraved of the whole group, die of a broken heart. All the other characters bear the catastrophe as well as can be expected. Adolphe grieves a little; but we do not find that he feels any permanent remorse for the mischief he has occasioned.

As a specimen of the translation so much praised in the note to the first page, take the following:

'Even to men themselves, it is not an indifferent matter to do this ill. Almost all of them believe themselves more corrupt, more thoughtless than they are. They expect to be able easily to break the intimacy which they carelessly contract. In the distance, the image of grief appears vague and indistinct, like a cloud, which they may pass through without difficulty.'

The book is not well printed, nor is it upon good paper; this is right: it deserves no better. The page is small, well spaced, with a modern margin. This is all well enough; if we *must* feed upon depravity, the thinner it is spread the better.

By far the most useful, entertaining, and instructive part of the volume, is an advertisement, on good paper, neatly printed, in small type, of the several publications that have issued from the press of a gentleman, who ranks not second in number and value of the works he has published, to any bookseller in the United States. This advertisement occupies twenty-four pages, and contains about sixteen thousand words: the novel Adolphe contains two hundred and thirty-eight pages, and contains about thirty-three thousand words. He seems to have thrown in his prefatory pages of advertisement as a make-weight, to make the work go down. No body will read the first, without feeling a pride and a pleasure in the prosperous state of the American press; no one will read the novel itself but with regret that this silly and wicked book may also find its place in such a catalogue. C.

ART. VII.—*The Adviser*.—From Ackerman's Repository.

I AM truly grateful, Mr. Editor, for your prompt attention to my letter: I begin to have a better opinion of mankind since the publication of it, for I have had several applications for my advice; but as the case of Mr. Tremor appears to me the most pressing, I shall consider it first. As his letter may perhaps amuse your readers, I have subjoined it. I am, Mr. Editor, your obliged,

SOLOMON SAGEPHIZ.

To S. SAGEPHIZ, Esq. Adviser-General.

Never surely, sir, was there a man more in want of that sage counsel which you have offered to the world in general, than myself: I will not trespass on your time, however, by complaining of my misfortunes, but proceed to state them as briefly as I can.

Having from my childhood delicate health, I had made a resolution never to marry—a determination which was frequently and at last

successfully combated by my aunt, Mrs. Matchem. The old lady had formed a design of marrying me to her *protégée*, Miss Grace Goodenough, and at last, in pursuance of her advice, I gave that lady my hand. My marriage took place two years ago, and until last month I had no reason to repent it. My wife is an excellent manager, a pleasant companion, and what was of still more importance to me, of such a sweet disposition, that she paid me with the greatest cheerfulness all those little attentions, the value of which can only be estimated by those who, like myself, labour under diseases which perhaps are partly real and partly imaginary. We seldom had company, and then only in a snug quiet way; but the indefatigable attentions of my wife furnished me with sufficient amusement for my mornings, and one or other of my friends generally passed the evenings with me at chess, drafts, or backgammon.

Thus, Mr. Adviser, did I spend nearly two years in quiet comfort, till unfortunately a distant relation of my wife paid us a visit. This lady, whose name was Apemode, is an old maid, who had passed her youth in dependance upon the great. She was just returned from France, whither she went as the humble companion of a lady of quality. Our plain, quiet, and retired way of life appeared insupportable to Miss Apemode; but as she did not dare openly to express her disgust, she commenced her insidious attack upon our domestic comforts, by persuading my wife that it was absolutely necessary for her, who had a right to consider herself as the principal person in the town where we reside, which I should have told you is at a considerable distance from London, to introduce among her neighbours some of the delightful customs of Paris: one of the pleasantest of which she said, was that of having social parties, which were styled *Les thés dansants*.

"And pray," cried my wife, "what sort of thing is this *thé dansant*? it has at least a singular name."

"Why, my dear," cried Miss Apemode, "it has nothing singular but its name. You go to a *thé dansant* to drink tea, and dance afterwards, or play at cards, if you prefer it. You are expected to appear in a fashionable evening costume, but not in the dress proper for a *bal paré*; in a word, a *thé dansant* is a social party, where ceremony is excluded, and to which every body goes with a disposition to be pleased."

At the conclusion of this speech my wife turned to me, and said with a look of entreaty which I did not know how to resist, "Do, my dear, let us have a *thé dansant*." I objected to the dancing, on account of the trouble which a large party would occasion in our small house: but all my objections were overruled. We were only to have a few friends, the dancing was to be over very early, and as to trouble or inconvenience, my wife assured me, it would occasion neither the one or the other.

Not wishing to contest with Mrs. Tremor the first point she had ever seemed desirous to carry, I consented; and invitations were accordingly issued for that day week. You will readily believe.

Mr. Adviser, that I was not a little surprised to find that this party, which was to occasion neither trouble nor inconvenience, robbed me of all my comforts. Until then my wife had regularly read to me at breakfast all that was interesting in three morning papers, for the weakness of my sight renders it painful to me to read for any length of time; but the day after our invitations were given, she read only a few paragraphs, because she assured me there was nothing worth looking at—by the way, she said the same thing every day for the whole week—and after hurrying over breakfast in a most uncomfortable manner, she quitted the room, to make arrangements for our party. I always used to take some little nourishing thing in the middle of the day, which Mrs. Tremor had generally the goodness to prepare for me herself; but from the moment she began to arrange matters for this important evening, that task devolved on Betty, and consequently my beef-tea was watery, my chocolate oily, and my soup over-seasoned.

Well, Mr. Adviser, the important evening came at last, and, to my equal surprise and displeasure, the whole town poured in on us. Parties were immediately arranged for *tric-trac* and *boston*, which Miss Apemode has succeeded in rendering fashionable among us; and such was the noise and confusion, that I lost two games at chess, the first he ever won from me, to Captain Culverin, who has exulted in it ever since, and declares every where that he beats me at chess; although I protest to you, that the noise of the *tric-trac* tables, and the chattering of a confounded little Frenchman, made me give him my queen for a pawn in one game, and caused me to place three pieces in check at once in another; so you see what right he had to boast of his skill.

In the mean time the young people were amusing themselves with reels and country dances; for to the great disappointment of Miss Apemode, who presided as mistress of the ceremonies of the ball-room, none of them could figure in the waltz or fandango. While they were in the height of their mirth, my wife proposed that the dancing and cards should be suspended, that we might enjoy a little concert; which I found afterwards had been planned to bring forward the musical talents of the Misses Screechwell, one of whom favoured us with some airs in I know not what language, and her sister and Monsieur Frivole, the Frenchman I before spoke of, performed what they were pleased to call pieces of music, which Miss Apemode assured us were the *chefs d'œuvres* of Cimarosa, executed in the manner of Crescemini. I actually blushed at her hardihood in hazarding such a ridiculous compliment; which, however, our musicians received as the homage due to their genius.

At last, to my great satisfaction, the concert ended, and then Monsieur Frivole begged to have the honour of amusing the company with some slight-of-hand tricks, which he had been taught by the celebrated D'Olivier, and had often practised with much applause at the house of his friend *Madame la Duchesse de Parvenue*, in Paris. Our guests had not hitherto thought M. Frivole of much consequence, but the name of the duchess convinced them of their

mistake, and they eagerly formed a circle round a table, at which the operator seating himself, exhibited dexterously enough several tricks with cards. The room rang with applause, which was not a little heightened by the whispers of Miss Apemode, that Monsieur Frivole was considered as the most skilful amateur of juggling in all Paris, and was absolutely doted upon by the *noblesse*. Alas! poor Monsieur Frivole had "touched the topmost point of all his greatness." He took a glass filled with wine, which he said he would change into rose-leaves, and scatter them on the bosom of Miss Bloomless. But by some mismanagement or other the trick failed, and instead of rose-leaves, poor Miss Bloomless received the wine, not on her bosom but on one side of her face, which instantly exhibited the tints of the crocus, instead of the roses and lilies that had adorned it the moment before. But this was not all: the lady who sat on her right, exclaimed bitterly against the awkwardness which had completely spoiled her white satin robe; and the one on her left, who by the bye was the most difficult to appease, had, in her eagerness to see the experiment more clearly, leaned so forward, that her head struck against that of Miss Bloomless, and the violence of the concussion displaced her flaxen wig, and broke one of her Marabout feathers. The three ladies were loud in their reproaches, and the poor operator, frightened at the storm which the unlucky failure of his spell had raised, sought to conjure down its violence by promising Miss Bloomless a pot of genuine Parisian rouge. This promise unluckily rendered her ten times more furious, for prior to this discovery she always denied that she wore any.

Baffled in his first attempt at conciliation, he had not courage to address either of the other ladies, but retreated from the table with a shrug so expressive of mortification, that, for his sake, I was heartily glad to hear supper announced. As I had conditioned that we should not have a formal supper, I leave you to judge of my surprise, when I found a table profusely covered *a la Française*.—Certainly nothing could be prettier than the appearance of our supper, but unfortunately it resembled the dinner of Toby Allspice, for we had nothing fit to eat, at least in my opinion; my good neighbours, however, did honor to the fricassees, friandeaus, &c. &c. &c. to the great satisfaction of my wife and her friend Miss Apemode; and at last, when I began to be heartily fatigued, they took leave.

I flattered myself, that in the course of a few days we should fall into our old quiet track; unfortunately, I was totally mistaken: from that day all the habits of my wife are changed; instead of attending to my comfort, she is for ever planning schemes of dissipation. I find remonstrance and entreaty alike ineffectual to stop the progress of a taste for pleasure and expense, which I supposed would be easily subdued, because it has been so lately acquired.—By pointing out to me what means I could use to restore order and comfort in my family, you would, sir, effectually oblige your very humble servant,

TIMOTHY TREMOR.

If Mr. Tremor will follow my advice, he will directly oblige

Miss Apemodé to quit his house; for we may fairly conclude, that when the cause of the evil he complains of is removed, the effect will soon cease. Let him pursue lenient measures with his wife, let him be even generous towards her cousin; but let him separate them by all means: in this one point he must be firm. I would recommend to him to procure for his wife every rational amusement within his reach, and if her heart is as good as he seems to think it, gratitude will soon make her renounce those pleasures which are inimical to his tranquillity.

THE ADVISER.

ART. VIII.—*On the Merits of a Residence in France.*—From the (London) Monthly Magazine.

ACTIVITY OF THE WOMEN.

AT the hotel or inn where you arrive, you may find the husband in the habit of going to market, and of keeping the books; but all other business, such as receiving the travellers, adjusting the bills, superintending the servants, male and female, falls under the province of *madame*. Again, if you go to an upholsterer's to buy a few articles of furniture, you may observe the husband superintending his workmen in the back shop or yard, but leaving it to his fair partner to treat with customers, to manage all cash receipts, and payments, and, in many cases, to fix on the articles to be purchased out of doors. The mercer's wife does not limit her services to the counter, or to the mechanical tasks of retailing and measuring—you see her at one time standing beside the desk, and giving directions to the clerks; at another you hear of her being absent on a journey to the manufacturing towns, and are desired to suspend your purchases, not till her return, which would be remote, but for the few days necessary to let her send home marks of her progress, '*car madame nous fait ses envois a mesure qu'elle fait ses achats.*' In short, women in France are expected not only to lend an assisting hand to their husbands in business, but to take a lead in the management, to keep the correspondence, to calculate the rate of prices, and to do a number of things that imply not merely fidelity and vigilance, but the habit of deciding and acting by herself in the most important departments of the concern. We need hardly add, that they are abundantly zealous in points so nearly connected with the welfare of their families, and that the extent of assistance thus afforded to the husband far exceeds any idea that can be formed by those who have not resided in France. But all advantages have their drawbacks, and this assistance is not afforded without several important sacrifices, among which we are to reckon the almost universal neglect of neatness in the interior of the house, and the more serious charge of inattention to the health of their children. The greater proportion of the latter are separated from their mothers at the time when parental tenderness is most wanted, and entrusted to country nurses, who are frequently very deficient in the means of preserving their health, or providing for their comfort.

If we look to the higher circles, we shall find every where examples of similar activity and address. Your readers may have fresh in their minds the multiplied letters and applications of madame Ney, and the more fortunate exploit of madame Lavalette. They will not have forgotten the courageous stand made by the dutchess of Angouleme at Bordeaux, in March, 1815, and her repeated addresses to the troops of the garrison.

MORALS.

This is a very delicate topic, and one on which I take the liberty to differ from a great number of our countrymen. In nothing does the exaggerating propensity of the French appear more conspicuous than in the tale of scandal; not that such tales are particularly frequent in this country, but, because, when they do come forth, they are arrayed in a garb that would hardly ever enter into the imagination of any of our countrywomen. On our side of the channel a rumour, whether among the fair or the mercenary part of the public, generally has probability, in some degree, for its foundation; but in France all you require is the direct allegation, the confident assertion. Nobody thinks of scrutinizing your evidence, and you are in no danger of being afterwards reminded of your fallacy, in a country where almost every thing was absorbed in the thirst of novelty. A lady in France, who may happen to have a quarrel, or who may give rise to a hostile feeling by her vanity or affectation, is not, as with us, merely satirised for the eccentricity of her dress or manner, but is doomed forthwith to encounter the most vehement attacks on her reputation. Lovers are immediately found out for her, and the circumstances of assignations are recapitulated with as much precision as if the parties had been present at the forbidden interview; if she has eclipsed her rivals at a ball, or received the marked attentions of a leading personage, the unkindly rumour will fly from mouth to mouth, without exciting, among at least nine-tenths of the public, the least doubt of its reality. It lasts, indeed, only for a few weeks, until some other female becomes equally the object of jealousy, and is made to furnish materials for a fresh series of wondrous anecdotes. It is ten to one that, at the time of the arrival of an English traveller in a French town, the *haute noblesse* are occupied with some precious rumour of this description, and our moralizing countryman records it in his journal with a sad conviction of the depravity of the nation.

A residence of several years in a provincial town of considerable size, and of much genteel society, has satisfied me that nine-tenths of the tales circulated against particular individuals are unfounded, and were never meant by the inventors to produce any thing beyond a temporary discredit to the obnoxious party. Common sense tells us, that in every civilized country, a woman will look for her happiness in the affection of her husband, and in the esteem of the respectable part of her sex; nor can France be accounted an exception, unless it can be shown that, by some strange peculiarity, the men in that country are indifferent to the chastity of their wives and daughters, or the women callous to every thing in the shape of

vice. Gallantry is the vice of an idle man; it is characteristic of the higher ranks in France, in the same manner, and perhaps in a somewhat higher degree than in other countries; but how small is the proportion of these idlers to the great mass of the population! The middling and the lower ranks follow the same habits of industry as with us; a married couple can find a maintenance for their family only by a cordial support of each other; and the time of the husband is occupied to a degree that leaves him very little leisure for planning projects on his neighbour's wife.

There is, however, a very marked distinction in the degree of reprobation affixed by French and English ladies to individuals of their sex, labouring under unfavourable imputations. While, with us, the exclusion from society takes place on a general scale, in France, it is only partial, owing (not as the wags will argue) to a community of impropriety on the part of those who still continue their countenance; but to a facility of temper, a wish to view things on the favourable side, a credulity in listening to the vindication of the accused party, a partiality to whoever courts protection; in short, to a variety of causes that do more honour to the heart than the head.

Parents in France are very scrupulous in regard to their daughters, and make a rule of not allowing them to go into company or to places of amusement without the protection of a relation or friend, whose age or character will prevent any loose conversation from the young or giddy part of the other sex. This, to be sure is paying but a bad compliment to the male part of the society; but it gives an English family residing in France an assurance, that their daughters may go without hazard into female society, particularly of an age corresponding to their own. Music, drawing, and dancing, form in that country, as with us, the general occupation of unmarried ladies.

PARIS.

There is a material difference between the French of Paris and the provincial towns, so that the favourable part of my picture is to be understood as applicable chiefly to the latter. Paris has always been the residence of an extraordinary number of *oisifs*, whether officers, *noblesse*, or others, who have just money enough to pay their way from day to day: and who, without being absolute adventurers, are perpetually falling into all the exceptionable habits of the inexperienced and idle. A Frenchman is the creature of habit, he has no fixed principles, and follows, with all imaginable pliancy, the example or solicitation of those with whom he happens to be connected for the moment. Such a flexibility of character must inevitably pave the way to a variety of irregularities; and eventually to vices; time is wasted at theatres, at shows, or at the more dangerous occupation of the gaming table? and, although the habitual exaggeration of the French leads them (when speaking of the vices of the metropolis) to exhibit a very *outré* picture, particularly in what relates to the fair sex, there can remain no doubt that Paris is a place to be avoided, and that it is the scene where, of all others, the national character of the French appears to the greatest disadvantage:

ART. IX.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, and Politics.*

The following Biographical Sketches are selected from the 'Dictionary of Living Authors' noticed in a former number of our Magazine.

HANNAH MORE. This distinguished ornament of her sex was one of the five daughters of a village school-master in the parish of Hanham, near Bristol. Her parents were so meanly situated as to be incapable of giving her that education which she desired. The casual reading of an odd volume of Richardson's *Pamela*, excited a thirst of knowledge which could not be allayed, and the kindness of some ladies in the neighbourhood enabled her to gratify her inclinations. Her improvement was so rapid as to attract general notice, and among others who distinguished themselves as her friends; was the late Dr. Stonhouse of Bristol, who interested himself so zealously in her behalf as to enable her to set up a school, which prospered greatly under her management and that of her sisters. By the doctor's kindness, she was introduced to the acquaintance of Mr. Garrick, who encouraged her to write for the stage. Her performances in this line became very popular, but after some years the religious views of Miss More took so serious a turn as to produce a declaration in the preface to the third volume of her works, that she did not consider the stage, in its present state, as becoming the appearance or countenance of a Christian, on which account she thought proper to renounce her dramatic productions in any other light than as mere poems. Having realized an independence by an honourable profession and the fruits of her pen, this lady, with her sisters, retired, about twenty years ago, from Bristol to Mendip, where amongst the colliers and the labourers in the lead works, they have effected a wonderful alteration, by erecting and superintending charity schools. Even this good work, however, could not escape opposition, and sorry we are to record, that the attack came from a quarter which ought to have provided the most prompt and zealous support to the disinterested and Christian undertaking. A sharp controversy was carried on by a neighbouring clergyman against the schools, and several others in their favour; but, to the honour of the founder herself, she took no part in the strife,

leaving the fruits to justify both her motives and her conduct. When the education of the princess Charlotte became an object of serious attention to her illustrious friends, Mrs. Hannah More was consulted by the first lady in the kingdom, on which occasion she published a work which was deservedly stamped with the royal approbation, as well as that of the world at large. For some years past, this valuable woman has been confined almost wholly to her bed, by an excruciating illness, notwithstanding which writing is her chief delight, and in this condition she has actually produced some of her most esteemed performances, particularly a religious novel, calculated to render that species of literary amusement more serviceable to the diffusion of sound principles and virtuous practice than seems generally to have been consulted in works of fiction.

JAMES HOGG, a self-taught poet, born about 1772, who received no instruction after his eighth year, and was first a cowherd, and afterwards a shepherd at Ettrick, N. B. Mr. Walter Scott is said to have interested himself so warmly in his behalf as to have obtained for him by the sale of his works a decent competence, consisting in a little farm in the Highlands.

JAMES LACKINGTON, a native of Somersetshire, of very humble origin, and originally a shoemaker, which profession he quitted and became the vender of second-hand books in Chiswell-street. His success in this line was so great that he erected a spacious house and shop in Finsbury-square, to which he gave the name of the Temple of the Muses. Mr. Lackington was chiefly indebted to the members of Mr. Wesley's society for his success in trade, yet in his first literary performance he treated the Methodists with unwarrantable severity. At that time, however, he had become the disciple of Paine, but since his retirement from business his religious impressions have been renewed, and he has built a meeting-house for the people of his communion at Taunton, where he now resides.

Sir RICHARD PHILLIPS, Knt. was born in London in 1768, and educated

first at the school in Soho Square, and next at Chiswick. At an early period he conceived an aversion to animal food, in an abstinence from which he has continued to persevere ever since. He was brought up under his uncle, a brewer in Oxford Street, but in 1788, he became partner in the management of a school at Chester, from whence he removed, two years afterwards, to Leicester, where, in 1790, he opened a bookseller's shop and began to publish the Leicester Herald. In 1792 he distinguished himself by his concern in several canals, towards which he was a subscriber *on paper*, and turned his enterprising schemes to some advantage. The following year he was prosecuted for selling Paine's Rights of Man, and having been found guilty, was sentenced to be imprisoned twelve months in Leicester gaol. In 1795 his house and printing office were consumed by fire, soon after which he came to London, and was enabled by the democratic party to set up the Monthly Magazine, which was designed to be the organ of that faction, and in which cause it has continued to operate effectually enough from the period of its commencement to the present hour. The success which the publisher experienced in this work induced him to embark pretty largely, first in the hosiery, and next in the bookselling business, so that he found it expedient to remove from St. Paul's Church Yard to New Bridge Street, where he carried on a very extensive concern. In 1807, he was chosen, by the management of his friends, one of the sheriffs of the city of London; and on going up with an address in behalf of ministers, he accepted the honour of knighthood, to the great astonishment of his republican friends. After various manœuvres to support his establishment, his name appeared in the Gazette, and for some months he led a life of obscurity at Pimlico, but on obtaining his certificate, he again burst forth as a meteor in the sphere of literature. His Magazine having been purchased in by some of his friends, he became the avowed editor of that publication.

Mrs. HESTER LYNCH PIOZZI. This lady is the daughter of John Salusbury, Esq. of Bodvel in Caernarvonshire, where she was born about the year 1744. In 1763 she married Mr. Henry

Thrale, an eminent brewer in Southwark, and for some years representative in parliament for that borough. On the death of that gentleman in 1781, his widow and four daughters went to reside at Bath, where, in 1784, Mrs. Thrale gave her hand to an Italian teacher of music named Gabriel Piozzi, with whom she visited the continent, and remained at Florence some years. Mrs. Piozzi was the intimate friend and correspondent of Dr. Johnson, whose displeasure she incurred by her very imprudent marriage; and when the doctor died, she published letters and anecdotes of that venerable character, without paying much regard to the propriety of the selection, or the verity of her relations. The late ingenious Joseph Baretti, in particular, was very severe in his animadversions on her conduct, and Dr. Wolcot published an admirable poem, in which he exposed the literary lady and her competitor, Mr. Boswell, under the appropriate titles of "Bozzy and Piozzi." In the Miscellanies of Mrs. Anna Williams, printed in 1765, is a very beautiful tale written by Mrs. Thrale, entitled, "The Three Warnings," besides which she communicated many light essays and poetical effusions to other collections.

MADAME DE STAEL-HOLSTEIN, is the only daughter of the celebrated M. Necker, by his wife Susan Curchod, the friend and correspondent of Gibbon. She was born at Paris in 1768, and received the most liberal education under the eye of her accomplished parents. But as Madame Necker encouraged an assembly of literary characters at her house, in which questions of morals, metaphysics, and politics, were freely discussed, the young lady, who witnessed these debates, very early contracted a disputatious and paradoxical spirit. When young, she married the baron de Stael-Holstein, Swedish ambassador at the court of France, but the union was far from being an harmonious one, as the husband soon perceived that his wife was too proud of her own intellectual powers to pay any deference to his opinions. She was besides little attentive to those graces which give a charm to the female character, and her appearance was frequently such as to create disgust by the carelessness of her dress, and the

forbidding rudeness of her manners. The first publication of madame de Stael, was a vindication of the character and writings of Rousseau, in 1789, but prior to this, she had written three short novels, which were printed at Lausanne, in 1795. At the beginning of the French revolution, this lady took a more active part in the convulsions which overturned the monarchy, than became either her sex or her situation as the wife of a foreign ambassador. She involved herself indeed so much in those scenes, as to become an object of public attention; and in 1793, she found it necessary to seek an asylum in England; but, two years afterwards, her husband being appointed ambassador to the French republic, she had the privilege of returning to Paris; and about this time she endeavoured to conciliate the men in power by publishing her "Thoughts on Peace addressed to Mr. Pitt," a pamphlet filled with sophistry, though it received the praises of Mr. Fox. About this time she lost her mother, and in 1798, her husband, neither of which events could repress her literary ardour or restrain her from publishing, for at this period she wrote a play called "Secret Sentiment," and a work, "On the Influence of Literature upon Society." In 1800, when Buonaparte passed through Switzerland, he visited Madame de Stael, who talked to him a great deal about her plans for the organization of France, on which the first consul very sarcastically replied: "Who educates your children, madame?" During her residence in Switzerland she wrote her novel of "Delphine," the elegance of which will hardly be admitted as an excuse for its tendency. Shortly after this she accompanied her father to Paris, but her residence there was short, for the freedom of her opinions and the popularity of Necker, induced Buonaparte to pronounce a sentence of banishment against madame de Stael, who said to him, "You are giving me a cruel celebrity; I shall occupy a line in your history." This, perhaps, might be wit, but it was far from being prudent; and she felt the effects of her indiscretion, for having settled near Rouen she was ordered to remove to a greater distance from Paris, on which she withdrew to Frankfort, with her

friend and protector Benjamin Constant. From Frankfort madame de Stael went to Berlin, where she received the intelligence of her father's illness, on which she hastened to Weimar, but found that he had died before her arrival, April 9, 1804. As soon as the first emotions of grief subsided, she employed herself in arranging his papers for publication, and they accordingly appeared in print the same year, at Geneva. In this publication, she was mean enough to pay a high-flown compliment to Buonaparte, in hopes, no doubt, of softening down his resentment, though the man himself, and every body else, well knew that the panegyric did not proceed from the heart. The sentence of her banishment remained, and to alleviate her uneasiness under the decree, she travelled to Italy, which produced another novel full as extravagant and beautiful as *Delphine*. She afterwards resided, for some time, at the Swedish capital, where she formed a close intimacy with the crown prince, Bernadotte, to whom she dedicated, in a very flattering style, her little work on *Suicide*. From Stockholm, madame de Stael passed over to England, where she remained while the allies were marching upon Paris, to which city she returned on the restoration of Louis XVIII, in 1814.

PROPERTIES OF PLANTS.

From the Literary Panorama.

The following extracts from a lecture on *Agricultural Chemistry*, by sir Humphrey Davy, are particularly worthy the attention of the ingenious. They open a view of the operations of Nature on a large scale, that is at once striking and instructive. The vegetable kingdom is distributed in great masses all over the face of the earth; and it produces effects accordingly. The numbers of the animal kingdom bear but a small proportion to it, considered as to such effects. Without entering into particulars, we shall set before our readers the general results of this learned lecturer's disquisitions. Sir Humphrey had been observing, that, when the leaves of vegetables perform their healthy functions, they tend to purify the atmosphere in the common variations of weather, and changes from light to darkness. Vege-

tables, he thinks, produce more oxygen than they consume: animals, on the contrary, are constantly consuming this gas. 'If every plant, during the progress of its life, makes a very small addition of oxygen to the air, and occasions a very small consumption of carbonic acid, the effect may be conceived adequate to the wants of nature.

'It may occur as an objection, that if the leaves of plants purify the atmosphere, towards the end of autumn, and through the winter, and early spring, the air in our climates must become impure, the oxygen in it diminish, and the carbonic acid gas increase, which is not the case: but there is a very satisfactory answer to this objection. The different parts of the atmosphere are constantly mixed together by winds, which, when they are strong, move at the rate of from 60 to 100 miles in an hour. In our winter, the south-west gales convey air, which has been purified by the vast forests and savannas of South America, and which, passing over the ocean, arrives in an uncontaminated state. The storms and tempests which often occur at the beginning, and towards the middle of our winter, and which generally blow from the same quarter of the globe, have a salutary influence. By constant agitation and motion, the equilibrium of the constituent parts of the atmosphere is preserved; it is fitted for the purposes of life; and those events, which the superstitious formerly referred to the wrath of heaven, or the agency of evil spirits, and in which they saw only disorder and confusion, are demonstrated by science, to be ministrations of divine intelligence, and connected with the order and harmony of our system. . . .

'The experiments of Montgolfier, the celebrated inventor of the balloon, have shown that water may be raised almost to an indefinite height by a very small force, provided its pressure be taken off by continued divisions in the column of fluid. This principle, there is great reason to suppose, must operate in assisting the ascent of the sap in the cells and vessels of plants which have no rectilinear communication, and which every where oppose obstacles to the perpendicular pressure of the sap. The changes taking place in the leaves and buds, and the degree of their power of transpiration, must be intimately connected like-

wise with the motion of the sap upwards. This is shown by several experiments of Dr. Hales.

'A branch from an apple tree was separated and introduced into water, and connected with a mercurial gage. When the leaves were upon it, it raised the mercury by the force of the ascending juices to four inches; but a similar branch, from which the leaves were removed, scarcely raised it a quarter of an inch.

'Those trees, likewise, whose leaves are soft and of a spongy texture, and porous at their upper surfaces, displayed by far the greatest powers with regard to the elevation of the sap.

'The same philosopher, found that the pear, the quince, cherry, walnut, peach, gooseberry, water-elder, and sycamore, which have all soft and unvarnished leaves, raised the mercury under favourable circumstances from three to six inches. Whereas the elm, oak, chesnut, hazel, willow, and ash, which have firmer and more glossy leaves, raised the mercury only from one to two inches. And the evergreens, and trees bearing varnished leaves, scarcely at all affected it; particularly the laurel and the *laurustinus*. . . .

'As the operation of the different physical agents, upon the sap vessels of plants ceases, and the fluid becomes quiescent, the materials dissolved in it by heat, are deposited upon the sides of the tubes now considerably diminished in their diameter; and in consequence of this deposition, a nutritive matter is provided for the first wants of the plant in early spring, to assist the opening of the buds, and their expansion, when the motion from the want of leaves is as yet feeble.

'This beautiful principle in the vegetable economy was first pointed out by Dr. Darwin: and Mr. Knight has given a number of experimental elucidations of it.

'The joints of the perennial grasses contain more saccharine and mucilaginous matter in winter than at any other season; and this is the reason why the *Fiorin* or *Agrostis alba*, which abounds in these joints, affords so useful a winter food.

'The roots of shrubs contain the largest quantity of nourishing matter in the depth of winter; and the bulb in all

plants possessing it, is the receptacle in which nourishment is hoarded up during the winter.

'In annual plants the sap seems to be fully exhausted of all its nutritive matter by the production of flowers and seeds; and no system exists by which it can be preserved. . . .

'In perennial trees a new alburnum, and consequently a new system of vessels is annually produced, and the nutriment for the next year deposited in them: so that the new buds, like the plumage of the seed, are supplied with a reservoir of matter essential to their first development.

'The old alburnum is gradually converted into heart-wood, and being constantly pressed upon the expansive force of the new fibres, becomes harder-denser, and at length loses altogether its vascular structure; and in a certain time obeys the common laws of dead matter, decays, decomposes, and is converted into azirifon and carbonic elements; into those principles from which it was originally formed.

'The decay of the heart-wood seems to constitute the great limit to the age and size of trees. And in young branches from old trees, it is much more liable to decompose than in similar branches from seedlings. This is likewise the case with grafts. The graft is only nourished by the sap of the tree to which it is transferred: its properties are not changed by it: the leaves, blossoms, and fruits, are of the same kind as if it had vegetated upon its parent stock. The only advantage to be gained in this way, is the affording to a graft from an old tree a more plentiful and healthy food than it could have procured in its natural state; it is rendered for a time more vigorous, and produces fairer blossoms and richer fruits. But it partakes not merely of the obvious properties, but likewise of the infirmities and dispositions to old age and decay, of the tree whence it sprang.

'It is from this cause that so many of the apples, formerly celebrated for their taste and their uses in the manufacture of cider, are gradually deteriorating, and many will soon disappear. The golden pippin, the red streak, and the moil, so excellent in the beginning of the last century, are now in the extreme stage of their decay; and, how-

ever carefully they are ingrafted, they merely tend to multiply a sickly and exhausted variety.

'The trees possessing the firmest and the least porous heart-wood, are the longest in duration.

'Amongst our own trees, the chesnut and the oak are pre-eminent as to durability; and the chesnut affords rather more carbonaceous matter than the oak.

'In old Gothic buildings these woods have been sometimes mistaken one for the other: but they may be easily known by this circumstance, that the pores in the alburnum of the oak are much larger and more thickly set, and are easily distinguished; whilst the pores in the chesnut require glasses to be seen distinctly.

'In consequence of the slow decay of the heart-wood of the oak and chesnut, these trees, under favourable circumstances, attain an age which cannot be much short of one thousand years.

'The beech, the ash, and the sycamore, most likely never live half so long. The duration of the apple tree is not, probably, much more than 200 years: but the pear-tree, according to Mr. Knight, lives through double this period; most of our best apples have been introduced into Britain by a fruiterer of Henry the Eighth, and they are now in a state of old age.

'The decay of the best varieties of fruit-bearing trees which have been distributed through the country by grafts, is a circumstance of great importance. There is no mode of preserving them; and no resource, except that of raising new varieties by seeds.

'Where a species has been ameliorated by culture, the seeds it affords, other circumstances being similar, produce more vigorous and perfect plants; and in this way the great improvements in the productions of our fields and gardens seem to have been occasioned.

'Wheat in its indigenous state, as a natural production of the soil, appears to have been a very small grass: and the case is still more remarkable with the apple and the plum. The crab seems to have been the parent of all our apples. And two fruits can scarcely be conceived more different in colour, size, and appearance, than the wild plum and the rich magnum bonum.

'The seeds of plants, exalted by cul-

tivation, always furnish large and improved varieties; but the flavour, and even the colour of the fruit seems to be a matter of accident. Thus, a hundred seeds of the golden pippin will all produce fine large-leaved apple-trees, bearing fruit of a considerable size; but the tastes and colours of the apples from each will be different, and none will be the same in kind as those of the pippin itself. Some will be sweet, some sour, some bitter, some mawkish, some aromatic; some yellow, some green, some red; and some streaked. All the apples will, however, be much more perfect than those from the seeds of a crab, which produce trees all of the same kind, and all bearing sour and diminutive fruit.

'The power of the horticulturist extends only to the multiplying excellent varieties by grafting. They cannot be rendered permanent; and the good fruits at present in our gardens, are the produce of a few seedlings, selected probably from hundreds of thousands; the results of great labour and industry, and multiplied experiments.

'The larger and thicker the leaves of a seedling, and the more expanded its blossoms, the more it is likely to produce a good variety of fruit. Short leaved trees should never be selected; for these approach nearer to the original standard: whereas the other qualities indicate the influence of cultivation.

'In the general selection of seeds, it would appear that those arising from the most highly cultivated varieties of plants, are such as give the most vigorous produce; but it is necessary from time to time to change, and as it were, to cross the breed.

'By applying the pollen, or dust of the stamina, from one variety to the pistil of another of the same species, a new variety may be easily produced; and Mr. Knight's experiments seem to warrant the idea, that great advantages may be derived from this method of propagation.

'Mr. Knight's large peas, produced by crossing two varieties, are celebrated amongst horticulturists, and will, I hope, soon be cultivated by farmers.

'I have seen several of his crossed apples, which promise to rival the best of those which are gradually dying away in the cider countries.

'And his experiments on the crossing of wheat, which is very easily effected, merely by sowing the different kinds together, lead to a result which is of considerable importance. He says, in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1799, "in the years 1795 and 1797, when almost the whole crop of corn in the island was blighted, the varieties obtained by crossing *alone* escaped, though sown in several soils, and in very different situations."

'By making trees espaliers, the force of gravity is particularly directed towards the lateral parts of the branches, and more sap determined towards the fruit-buds; and hence they are more likely to bear when in a horizontal than when in a vertical position.

'The twisting of a wire, or tying a thread round a branch has been often recommended as a means of making it produce fruit. In this case the descent of the sap in the bark must be impeded above the ligature; and more nutritive matter consequently retained and applied to the expanding parts.

'In engrafting, the vessels of the bark of the stock and the graft cannot so perfectly come in contact as the albuminous vessels, which are much more numerous, and equally distributed; hence the circulation downwards is probably impeded, and the tendency of the graft to evolve its fruit-bearing buds increased.

'By lopping trees, more nourishment is supplied to the remaining parts; for the sap flows laterally as well as perpendicularly. The same reasons will apply to explain the increase of the size of fruits by diminishing the number upon a tree.

'As plants are capable of amelioration by peculiar methods of cultivation, and of having the natural term of their duration extended; so, in conformity to the general law of change, they are rendered unhealthy by being exposed to peculiar unfavourable circumstances, and liable to premature old age and decay.'

LOCUSTS.

To the Editor of the Lit. Panorama.

Observing in your *Panorama* No. 26, for Nov. 1816, some account of the locusts of North America, I take the liberty of writing you some additional no-

tices on that subject, which seems to be a branch of entomology but little known.

In the month of June, 1798, as I was crossing the state of Pennsylvania on foot, having passed several of the ridges of mountains called properly the Appalachian mountains, my attention was attracted by an unusual hum, or buzz in the air; and looking up I saw several large insects on the wing; they were brown, and flew heavily; about an inch in length, and having four guaze-like wings. Their note there is no describing—it was rather long, and somewhat piercing—having a slight inflection of tone, as if divided into two syllables, which (together with the religious leaning of the people) produces the notion that they say “PHARAOH.” While I was but entering on the confines of the tract of land which they then covered, I could distinguish the beginning and end of the note of each insect I saw; but in a short space (a few miles) they were so numerous as to excite great attention; though I still had formed no distinct idea what they were. In two days journey afterwards, arriving at Pittsburgh (at the head of the Ohio) I found the people all talking of nothing else but the locusts, which indeed was no wonder, for they were so numerous that the hum continued without intermission the whole day, and by dint of numbers was disagreeably loud and importunate.—I did not then stay long in Pittsburgh, but pursued my expedition down the Ohio to Kentucky, and returned in about a month through the Ohio states (unsettled territory) to Pittsburgh again: the noise was far from being over; but I began to observe a phenomenon on the trees which I could not account for. Every tree whether in the woods, or in the gardens, in the town or out of it, was hung with dead twigs, having their leaves on, but dried and turned of various colours like autumn. I inquired of the people the reason of this appearance, and found that it was occasioned by the locusts. I was now anxious to examine the process of their ravages, and I found that twigs of the last year’s shoot were perforated to the pith, by holes in rows placed as near together as the teeth in a fine ivory comb (and of course as small) and as many as could be bored between the

knots of the twig, in two or three places on each. On large trees some hundreds of twigs were so perforated, and in every hole was deposited an egg, or embryo of a maggot.—Owing to the heat of the summer, the twigs so injured were killed, and twisting with the process of drying away, they hung as I have described, giving the woods a most singular and unnatural appearance.

It may seem astonishing in the economy of nature as to the re-production of these creatures, but the larvæ in every twig that dies, dies also; nor could I find living maggots in any shrub or tree but only in the twigs of the *sassafras*; these twigs being more tenacious of life, sustained the puncturing, without yielding to the drought;—I cut off many of them, and sliding a small knife along the punctures, deeper than the bark, cut through a row of small white maggots, which gave out a milky moisture. At the latter end of the year the locusts disappeared, and no one considered how, or what got them. They might perhaps, occupy a tract of land about 100 miles square.

In the year 1800 I was at Baltimore, and walking in Howard’s park (in the beginning of June) at the back of that city, I observed innumerable holes under the trees (like the holes out of which our black beetles arise in spring,) and looking into the trees I perceived the under sides of their leaves filled with wingless insects which adhered to them; every leaf that I could distinctly see had three or four on it. In a few days the whole atmosphere was alive with locusts, and the hum was loud and unceasing; the exuvizæ dropped speedily from the leaves, and lay under the trees in such quantities that bushels might soon have been gathered. I now perceived that the creatures made their way out of the earth, without wings, and crept up the trees, fastening themselves underneath the leaves, where in a short time they were perfected; a suture then opened down the back, and the winged insect dropped out (*certainly upon its wings*.) being thenceforth a tenant of the air. This was the second flight that I had the opportunity of observing—but at a considerable distance from the first, and I had no means of ascertaining how far they extended. Neither can I specify the period of their return—

but I remember their public papers called the insect the *cicada septemdecem*.

I am afraid it would be in vain to speculate from these imperfect notices, upon the mode of their reproduction, or the period they remain inactive, or the changes they may undergo. It appears to be certain that they become a maggot before winter sets in, but whether this maggot (or grub) descends into the earth, I know not.

I was at Carlisle (Pennsylvania) in 1794, but not in 1796—but I passed through it in 1798 during the early part of my excursion before named. It is probable that some tract or other of the United States is every year visited by these swarms; but I cannot agree with the statement in your extract of the *locusts creeping immediately out of their husks, and hanging by their fore-feet like tallow candles*; the contrary is much more probable, and their exuviae will continue sticking under the leaves some days after the insect has flown. The holes they make in rising may be about three quarters of an inch in diameter, and the former error in that particular may be an error of the press.

If you think this worth inserting you are welcome to it—and I may probably hereafter recollect some interesting particulars relative to that country.

BEN. HOLDICH.

COFFEE SIMMERER.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.

THE use of coffee becoming every day more extensive in this country, I presume that any suggestion for the improvement of that pleasing and salubrious beverage cannot prove unacceptable to the public. Under that persuasion, I beg leave to communicate a method of coffee-making, which I have long practised, and which I find to answer my purpose better than any other—though I have tried several, and bestowed on the subject a share of attention, which your readers will hardly deem censurable when apprised, that coffee has, for the last three years, been my only beverage, except morning and evening tea.

My process, sir, is that of simmering over the small, but steady, flame of a lamp,—a process at once simple, easy, and (without watching or attendance)

uniformly productive of an extract as grateful to the palate and the stomach, as to leave me neither the want nor the desire of any stronger liquor.

But, to accomplish this, a vessel of peculiar construction is requisite. Mine is a straight-sided pot, as wide at top as at bottom, and inclosed in a case of similar shape, to which it is soldered airtight at the top. The case is above an inch wider than the pot, descends somewhat less than an inch below it, and is entirely open at the bottom; thus admitting and confining a body of hot air all round and underneath the pot. The lid is double, and the vessel is of course furnished with a convenient handle and spout.

In this simmerer the extract may be made either with hot water or with cold. If wanted for speedy use, hot water will be proper, but not actually boiling; and, the powdered coffee being added, nothing remains but to close the lid tight, to stop the spout with a cork, and place the vessel over the lamp, where it will soon begin to simmer, and may remain unattended and unnoticed until the coffee is wanted for immediate use; it may then be strained through a bag of stout close linen, which will transmit the liquid so perfectly clear as not to contain the smallest particle of the powder.

The strainer is tied round the mouth of an open cylinder or tube, which is fitted into the mouth of the coffee-pot that is to receive the fluid, as a steamer is fitted into the mouth of a saucepan; and, if the coffee-pot have a cock near the bottom, the liquid may be drawn out as fast and as hot as it flows from the strainer.

If the coffee be not intended for speedy use; as is the case with me, who have my simmerer placed over my night-lamp at bed-time, to produce the beverage which I am to drink the next day at dinner and supper; in such case cold water may be used with equal, or perhaps superior, advantage, though I have never found any perceptible difference in the result, whether the water employed was hot or cold. In either case, it soon begins to simmer, and continues simmering all night, without ever boiling over, and without any sensible diminution of quantity by evaporation.

With respect to the lamp—although a fountain-lamp is undoubtedly prefera-

ble, any of the common small lamps, which are seen in every tin-shop, will answer the purpose, provided that it contain a sufficiency of oil to continue burning bright during the requisite length of time. The tube or burner of my lamp is little more than one-eighth of an inch in diameter; and this, at the distance of one inch and three quarters below the bottom of the pot, with the wick little more than one-eighth of an inch high, and with pure spermaceti oil, has invariably performed, as above described, without requiring any trimming, or other attention, and without producing any smoke; whereas, if the wick were too high, or the oil not good, the certain consequences would be, smoke, soot, and extinction.

One material advantage attending this mode of coffee-making is, that a smaller quantity of the powdered berry is requisite to give the desired strength to the liquor. The common methods require that the powder be coarse, in which state it does not give out its virtue so completely as if it were ground finer; whereas in this process it may be used as fine as it can conveniently be made, and, the finer it is, the smaller will be the quantity required, or the richer the extract—as I have agreeably experienced, since I have been enabled, by the new invention of Messrs. Deakin and Duncan, of Ludgate-hill, to have my coffee at once reduced to the proper degree of fineness by a single operation, without the tedious labour of a second grinding with the mill tightened.

JOHN CAREY.

West-square Lambeth; April 2.

ITALIAN OPERA.

From the Literary Panorama.

The following article is not only curious in itself, as marking the anxiety of government, without whose sanction nothing of the kind can be attempted, or matured, to revive the talent of Opera writing; but also as describing what modern times demand as the essentials of an opera likely to be successful in the present day. The English reader will smile at the determination that there shall be *one* comic character in a comic opera. The times of Sentimental comedy, or what the French denominated *La Comédie larmoyante*, are over; and the call among

the public is, for strong characters strongly combined. Perhaps, there may be great propriety in concealing the names of the writers; and in preventing preference; this must, in some degree check the intrigue of the theatre, against which merit is no protection; as some writers know but too well. The stipulation that answers should be given within a month after the reception of a piece, would prove extremely acceptable to many an English applicant for managerial protection.

Programma of the Direction of the Royal Imperial Theatre of La Scala, at Milan. Dated April 5, 1816.

I. From the date of the publication of the present Programma to the end of December, 1819, it shall befree to every Italian poet to send to the Committee of Direction *Dramas*, or *Operas* serious or comic.

II. The communications must be sent post paid, addressed *Al Signor Cavaliere Angelo Petracchi*; or *Al Camerino del R. C. Teatro Alla Scala, in Milano*.

III. The authors must carefully conceal their names. The pieces must be accompanied by a sealed note, containing their names, their address, and those of a person who may answer for them; the choice of whom is left to themselves.

IV. The pieces so sent shall be examined by two of the directors, and by a third person chosen from among the most distinguished poets of the city of Milan.—Those pieces which shall be excluded from performance shall be returned to the author, or to the person commissioned to act as his deputy.

V. One month after sending their pieces, the authors may expect a definitive answer, as to the reception or rejection of their performances, and in the latter case, they may receive them again immediately, with the unsealed note of address.

VI. The pieces which shall be approved, will be placed in the director's drawer, from among which will be selected all the new works composed for the theatre during the time that the directors are in office, to the end of the Carnival, 1820; during which time will be represented at least one serious opera and two comic operas, in each year; with the usual approbation.

VII. The directors engage to represent the pieces without any alteration, whether by the Musical composers, or the actors. In case the writers living at a distance should think alteration necessary, they will nominate a proper person to that office; or they will authorise the directors.

VIII. The essential qualities demanded in the pieces of both descriptions, are beside purity of style,

1. That they shall be in two acts.
2. That they shall be neither too long nor too short.
3. That according to the prevailing taste, they include a greater number of musical pieces of combination than of airs.
4. That they combine interest and novelty with the pomp of the spectacle.
5. That in a comic opera there be at least one buffoon, or comic personage.

IX. For each serious opera that shall be brought out on the stage, the sum of a thousand Italian *lire* will be paid; and for every comic opera eight hundred *lire*.

X. When the piece is printed, after the title will be added—*crowned according to the Programma of April 5, 1816*. The author shall be at liberty to add his name, or not, according to his own pleasure; and he shall receive a present of twelve copies.

XI. In case any piece sent for approbation shall be represented on any other theatre, the directors shall no longer be bound by the stipulation in Article IX.

XII. The writers shall be authorized to demand information concerning their pieces sent, and even to withdraw them.

XIII. After the Carnival of 1820, the pieces which shall remain in charge of the directors shall be transferred to their successors in the direction, if they shall think proper to continue the conditions fixed by the present Programma, or in case of the contrary, they shall await the determination of their authors.

Done at Milan, in the Committee of the Royal and Imperial Theatre Alla Scala, April 5, 1816.

PLAN TO PREVENT VESSELS FROM SINKING.

In small decked vessels, such as sloops, there are seldom more than three or four men to navigate them; so

that if they spring a leak the fatigue becomes so great at the pumps, that the men are soon exhausted. When a sloop or small vessel is building, and before planking the bottom and sides, let the outside of the timbers be rubbed over with a mixture of pitch, tar, cow-hair, and powdered charcoal, made hot, and which, when cold, is of the consistency of cobbler's wax: after rubbing the timbers on the outside with this composition, plank the bottom and sides: when the planks are caulked, fill all the spaces up between the timbers with this mixture, and also over the inside of the timbers; then nail on the ceiling or lining planks. It is impossible if the seams of the outer planks are ever so open, for the vessel to leak; nor can either rats or mice penetrate between the timbers, because they will not touch this composition. Two small brass rollers, or friction wheels, fixed on the opposite side of the pump-spear at the valve, will keep the pump-spear upright, and make the pump work easier.

If the editors of the different periodical publications will give publicity to this paragraph, it will be the means of saving a number of the lives of our brave seamen. *Europ. Mag.*

ON HORSE POWER.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.
SIR,

Mr. Wilkes, of Measham, Derbyshire, communicated to the board of Agriculture, in February 1803, the result of an experiment, by which it appears that a horse of the value of 20*l*. drew five tons weight up a rail-road ascending five-sixteenths of an inch in each yard, and that the same animal could not draw more than three tons up a rail road ascending at the rate of one inch and three quarters. By this experiment it was proved that there was a decrease in the horse's power of 1943-4*lb*. on the increasing elevation of each one sixteenth part of an inch.

This is a species of proof which demonstrates a greater advantage to be derived from reducing the elevation of roads in a hilly country, than is shown by the usual mechanical experiments of a carriage drawn up an inclined plane by a weight suspended over a pulley; and it is much more correct, as the physical power of the horse rapidly decreases by the increasing elevation of

the hill, at the same time that the load is becoming more difficult to be drawn; but, in the case of the mechanical experiment, weight drawing the carriage continues equally effective.

As this is a subject of material importance to the internal trade of this country, it would render a public service if any of your well informed correspondents would be pleased to state, through the medium of your valuable publication, what information they may possess thereon.

A. B.

To the Editor of the Monthly Magazine.
SIR,

Your correspondent A. B., in the last Number of your entertaining Miscellany, after describing the experiment communicated by Mr. Wilkes, of Measham, to the Board of Agriculture, in 1803, observes that this is a species of proof which demonstrates a greater advantage to be derived from reducing the elevation of roads in a hilly country, than is shown by the usual mechanical experiment of a carriage drawn up an inclined plane by a weight suspended over a pulley.

It appears, by this experiment, that, on the rail-way rising five-sixteenths of an inch to a yard, a horse drew the weight of five tons; but on a rise of one and three-quarter inches to a yard, he could only draw three tons: and A. B. observes, the experiment proves that, there was a decrease in the horse's power of 194 3-4lb. on the increasing elevation of each one-sixteenth of an inch. All this is very true, but it is not by any means a correct statement of the question. No horse can put in motion five tons, or three tons, or one ton, without the assistance of mechanical power; and the advantage derived from the machine, by which he drew the weight of five tons, must be deducted, before any estimation can be made of the power of the horse. A. B. gives no data on which to form such a calculation; but supposing the wheels of the waggon to be thirty inches high, the axles three inches diameter, and well oiled, their power would be equal to about thirty-nine-fortieths of the absolute weight, leaving one-fortieth part in friction for the horse to overcome, or 2 1-2 cwt. to which must be added the mechanical power of the inclined plane acting against him: five-sixteenths of an inch

is about the 115th part of a yard; therefore the same proportion of the load, which is about 3qrs. 15lb. must be added; making together 3cwt. 1qr. 15lb. which the horse would have to draw up this gentle slope.

Now, let us see what the poor beast would have to do up the steeper hill. An inch and three-quarters in a yard is an elevation of about one-twentieth of the length of the inclined plane, and one-twentieth part of the weight of three tons is three hundred weight; this, added to the computed resistance of friction in the machinery, makes 5 1-2 cwt., which the horse had to draw in this case, almost double that of the former; and he must have been a horse of considerable strength and spirit to have exerted himself with such effect.

This result seems the very reverse of the inference A. B. is desirous of deriving from the experiment he relates; his position, however, that the physical power of the horse decreases by the increasing elevation of the hill, is nevertheless true.

That a horse going up hill is placed in an attitude unfavourable for drawing a load is self-evident, and needs not the aid of mechanical philosophy to furnish proof; but it would be extremely difficult to ascertain in what ratio.

It might be cruel to attempt making experiments on the absolute physical strength of animals that cannot express their sensations. I recollect a most inhuman trial of strength of this sort some years ago: a wager was laid whether a race-horse, or a cart-horse, could bear the greatest load; and, by means of a crane, equal weights were heaped upon the backs of each, till the cart-horse sunk under his burthen, while the high-blooded animal stood firm and erect.

From experiments on the strength of different kinds of wood, made by Col. Beaufoy, it appears that the pitch pine is the strongest wood; next to that the English oak, with straight and even fibres; then the English oak, irregular and cross grained; fourthly, the Riga fir; and fifthly the Dantzic oak. If the strength of the pitch pine be called 1000, the strength of the English oak will be, from the mean of two experiments, 923; of the Riga fir, 782; of the Dantzic oak, 663.

Mon. Mag.

To give additional strength to iron and steel, Mr. DANIEL proposes to twist the metal in the same manner as strength and compactness are given to hemp and flax. *ib.*

M. LEGENDRE has refuted the objection of Professor Lealie to his beautiful analysis of the relations of triangles. The sum of the three angles of a triangle being a determinate quantity, the sum of two known angles necessarily determines the third—not so the sides, the sum of which are not a determined quantity; consequently the sum of two being known does not determine any thing in regard to the third. We wish professor Leslie had expunged his objection from the new edition of his *Elements of Geometry*, for the honour of a geometrical mind. *ib.*

The sensations of heat and cold by no means originate entirely from what we call difference of climate; innumerable other circumstances contribute to excite them.

Algarotti observes, that when the French king sent some mathematicians to measure a degree under the polar circle, and the king of Spain sent others for the same purpose to the line, to ascertain the true figure of the earth, who would have imagined that those under the equator would suffer most by cold, and those under the arctic circle by heat: and yet this was actually the case. The cold on the summits of the Andes was intense, and the heat occasioned by the length of the polar days was hardly to be borne. *Europ. Mag.*

There are two extraordinary instances of predictions being fulfilled, where no supernatural means can possibly be supposed.

The first is mentioned by the learned bishop of Worcester, in the preface to his *Sermons on Prophecy*. It is part of a chorus in the *Medea of Seneca*:—

Venient annis

Secula, seris, quibus Oceanus
Vineula rerum laxet et ingens
Pateat tellus, Tiphysque nevos
Detegat orbes.

This is obviously fulfilled by the invention of the compass, and the discovery of America.

The other is in the first book of *Dante's Purgatorio*.

J' mi volsi a man' destro, e posi mente
All' altro polo, e vidi quattro stelle
Non viste mai, fuor eh' alla prima gente.

Now this is an exact description of the appearance of the four stars near the south pole; and yet Dante is known to have written before the discovery of the southern hemisphere. *ib.*

PARLIAMENTARY PAPERS.

An account of the Official Value of the Exports from Great Britain, in each year, from 1792 to 1816, both inclusive; distinguishing the value of British produce and Manufactures from that of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise:

Years	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Total Exports.
1792—	18,366,851	6,129,998	24,466,849
1793—	13,832,268	5,784,417	1,676,685
1794—	16,725,492	8,386,043	25,111,445
1795—	16,338,213	8,509,126	24,847,339
1796—	19,102,230	8,923,848	28,026,068
1797—	16,903,103	9,412,610	26,315,713
1798—	19,672,303	10,617,526	30,290,069
1799—	24,084,213	9,556,144	33,640,357
1800—	24,304,283	13,815,837	38,120,120
1801—	25,699,809	12,087,047	37,786,856
1802—	26,993,129	14,418,837	41,411,666
1803—	22,252,027	9,326,468	31,578,495
1804—	23,935,793	10,515,574	34,451,367
1805—	25,004,337	9,959,508	34,954,845
1806—	27,402,685	9,124,499	36,527,184
1807—	25,171,492	9,395,149	34,566,571
1808—	26,691,962	7,862,305	34,554,267
1809—	35,104,132	15,182,768	50,286,900
1810—	34,923,575	10,946,284	45,869,859
1811—	24,131,734	8,277,937	32,409,671
1812—	31,244,723	11,998,449	43,243,172
1813	The Records of this year were destroyed by fire.		
1814—	36,092,167	20,499,347	56,591,514
1815—	44,053,455	16,930,439	60,983,894
1816—	36,714,534	14,545,933	51,260,468

WILLIAM IRVING,

Inspector-General of the imports and Exports of Great Britain.

Custom-house, London,
13th March, 1817.

Lit. Port.

PERPETUAL MOTION.

M. Maillardet of Neufchatel announces, in a foreign Journal, that he has succeeded in solving the celebrated problem of perpetual motion, so long regarded as a scientific chimera. The piece of mechanism to which he applies his principle is thus described:—It is a wheel, around the circumference of which there is a certain number of

tubes, which alternately radiate or turn in towards the centre, rendering the moving power at one time strong, at another time weak; but preserving throughout such an intensity of force, that it is necessary to keep it in check by a regulator.

. We remember to have seen, many years ago, a machine on a similar construction, made in London, but after a while the friction became too powerful to be overcome by the moving levers; M. M. may have succeeded better.

From the Monthly Magazine.

The annual revenues of the parochial clergy of England and Wales have been stated at 2,557,000*l.* But it must be remembered, that these revenues arise as well from glebe and augmentation lands, with surplice-fees, as from tithes in kind or by composition, which, on each parish, can scarcely be estimated on the average under 40*l.* per annum, which, according to the number of 10,649 parochial benefices, will amount to nearly 526,000*l.*; which being deducted from the gross revenue of the parochial clergy, will leave 2,031,000*l.* as the actual receipt from the tithes in their possession. The impropriations are usually estimated at 3,845 in number; and of these, about one-third belong to the bishops, dignified clergy; and two universities, and the other two-thirds to the lay-impropriators: and the laity are also lessees of the one-third belonging to the superior clergy and universities. The collective income of which impropriations from tithes alone, at this time, may be taken at 1,538,000*l.* per annum. It appears, then, that the total receipt from the tithes in the possession of the parochial clergy, and impropriators, whether paid in kind or accounted for by composition, amounts to 3,569,000*l.* per annum: which, in proportion to that part of the agricultural lands in the kingdom, subject to the payment of tithes, namely, 28,000,000 of acres, and valued or rented at 15*s.*, 20*s.*, or 25*s.*, per statute acre, will be under 3*s.* 5*d.* in the pound at 15*s.* per acre, a little above 2*s.* 6*d.* in the pound at 20*s.* per acre, and a little above 2*s.* in the pound at 25*s.* per acre.

NORWICH STEAM-BOAT.

An unfortunate accident befel a steam-boat within the month at Norwich, which has damped the ardour of

many friends to their general introduction. We have taken some pains to inquire into the circumstances, and we find no ground of alarm, or any just ground of objection to steam-boats generally, more than might be taken against culinary fires, or lamps, or candles, from their occasionally setting houses on fire and burning persons to death; or against stage-coaches, which are so often fatally upset; or against horses, which kill above a thousand persons in England annually; or to ships and boats, which are the cause of the death of tens of thousands in every year. Multitudes of the most powerful steam-engines are in daily use in every part of Great Britain, yet how seldom are they a cause of any fatal catastrophe. In this new application of them, an accident may be likely to result from inexperience; and in this instance, at Norwich, the conductors of the boat are reported to be exceedingly blameable. It appears there was an opposition steam-boat, and, in order that one might go off in high style, and run ahead of the other, the regulating valve was so fastened down that, when the danger became apparent, it could not be raised, and an explosion of the confined steam was inevitable. A law should punish proven wantonness of this kind in an exemplary manner, and forbid the use of high pressure engines such as this in steam-boats, as a security to passengers, and as a protection to a navigating power so essential in opposing the current of rivers. In this magazine a foreign correspondent has suggested the application of a greater and a safer power than steam, which is worthy of attention; and, in the use of steam itself, the fears of the public may be removed by employing the steam-engine in a separate vessel, with which to tow that which is laden with passengers or goods. Our readers, too, cannot have forgotten, that we lately submitted to them the project of a *team* or *horse-boat*, the machinery of which may be worked by horses, as in a common horse-mill; while the keep of the horses amounts, it is said, to less than the expense of the fuel in a steam-boat. ib.

From the Edinburgh Monthly Magazine.

A report made to the council-general of hospitals in Paris, relative to the state of those establishments from 1803 to

1814, contains some important facts. They are divided into two classes, called *hopitaux* and *hospices*; the former, ten in number, being designed for the sick and diseased; and the latter, which amount to nine, affording a provision for helpless infancy, and poor persons afflicted with incurable infirmities. The *Hôtel Dieu*, the most ancient of the hospitals, contains 1200 beds. The general mortality in the hospitals has been 1 in 71-2, and in the *hospices* 1 in 61-2; and it has been more considerable among the women than the men. It is found, that wherever rooms of the same size are placed one over another, the mortality is greatest in the uppermost. In the *Hospice de l'Accouchement*, in 1814, there were delivered 2,700 females, of whom 2,400 acknowledged that they were unmarried. In the ten years from 1804 to 1814, there were admitted into the *Hospice d'Allaitement*, or Foundling Hospital 23,458 boys, and 22,463 girls, total 45,921 children, only 4,130 of whom were presumed to be legitimate. The mortality of infants in the first year after their birth was under 2-7ths. During the ten years, 355,000 sick were admitted into the hospitals, and 59,000 poor persons into the *hospices*. The total number that received relief out of these establishments in 1813, which gives about the average of that period, was 103,000, of whom 21,000 belonged to the department of the Seine.—Some pains have been taken to ascertain the different causes of mental derangement. It appears, that among the maniacs the number of women is generally greater than that of men. Among the younger females, love is the most common cause of insanity; and among the others, jealousy or domestic discord. Among the younger class of males, it is the too speedy development of the passions, and with the others, the derangement of their affairs, that most frequently produces this effect. The calamities of the revolution were another cause of madness in both sexes; and it is worthy of remark, that the men were mad with aristocracy, the women with democracy. Excessive grief occasioned lunacy in the men, whereas the minds of the female were deranged by ideas of independence and equality.

From the same.

ITALY.

M. Niebuhr, the Prussian envoy at Rome, has discovered, in the Vatican Library, the fragment yet wanting in Cicero's Oration *pro Marco Rabirio*, and a fragment of the Oration *pro Planicio*. These two fragments were discovered in the same MS. from which Amaduzzi has already extracted an unpublished fragment of Livy. The learned Prussian envoy has also found some passages of the Works of Seneca.

From the same.

The Berlin Gazette gives the following account of Von Kotzebue's voyage round the world, which has been received from Kamschatka. Letters of an earlier date, which, after having doubled Cape Horn, he sent from the coast of Chili, have been lost, or at least are not yet come to hand. M. Von Kotzebue discovered three new islands in the South Sea, in 14° of latitude, and 144° of longitude, to which he gave the names of Romanzow (the author of the expedition), Spiridon, and Krusenstern. Besides these, he discovered a long chain of islands in the same quarter, and two clusters of islands in the 11th degree of latitude and 190th of longitude. (It is not specified whether the latitude is N. or S. or the longitude E. or W.) These he called after his ships, Rurich's Chain; the two latter Kutusof's Cluster (a group) and Suwarrof's Cluster. All these islands are covered with wood, partly uninhabited, and dangerous for navigators. The discoverer has sent to Count Romanzow a great many maps and drawings. On the 12th July O. S. Kotzebue designed to sail from Kamschatka to Bering's Straits, according to his instructions. He hopes to return to Kamschatka in September 1817. On the whole voyage from Chili to that place, he had not a single person sick on board. He touched at Easter Island, but did not find the inhabitants so friendly as La Peyrouse describes them. He thinks that something must have happened since that time, which has made them distrustful of the Europeans: perhaps it may be the overturning of their surprisingly large statues, which Kotzebue looked for in vain, and found only the ruins

of one of them near its base, which still remains. He saw no fruits from the seeds left by La Peyrouse, nor any sheep or hogs, which by this time must have multiplied exceedingly. A single fowl was brought him for sale. It seems we may hope much from this young seaman, who is not yet thirty years of age. He was obliged, for many reasons, to leave the learned Dane, Wormskrold, behind in Kamschatka.

From the Gentleman's Magazine.

DRY ROT.

"A disease known, is half removed."

Many theories have been set forth to account for the dry-rot; many too have been the remedies prescribed to cure, and the means to prevent it: but I believe all have hitherto been alike unsuccessful; for although its *nature* may have hitherto eluded our search, yet I think its *origin* is not so obscure as to discourage our endeavours to discover it. I hope I may anticipate, that if the following essay do not completely develop its nature, and preventive, that I shall have furnished materials, at least, that may enable others to supply these desiderata, now so greatly needful for our shipping and our dwellings.

I consider the dry-rot to be the result of the putrefactive fermentation, which is modified and much accelerated by situation and circumstances.

It will, I conceive, materially assist many persons (*shipwrights* especially) to comprehend the whole of the subject, by giving first a short general account of the organisation of trees.

Trees are organised bodies; being furnished with several sets of vessels, adapted to perform the several functions of elaborating, and circulating their vital fluids, and of respiration: they consist obviously of the roots, stem, branches, bark, and leaves; and these all contain vessels fitted to the functions each has to perform; it is generally agreed by naturalists, that these are of three kinds; besides the respiring vessels of the leaves; namely, first, the *common vessels*; these are long cylindrical tubes, passing up through the root and bole, into the branches, and terminating in the leaves; and their office is to convey the *sap* into the elaboratory of the tree (the leaves;) where it is changed into the *peculiar juices* of the plant; and is thence conveyed back again to the root by the second set,

which are denominated the *proper vessels*, to nourish and supply aliment to the tree, for its growth and form; annually, a new zone of wood around the tree; these vessels are situated principally in the internal bark, and cellular tissue above it; and are, like the former, long cylindrical tubes, running from the leaves back into the root: the third set are the *spiral vessels*, accompanying the common vessels; and are supposed to be either absorbents, or air-vessels; but their office has not yet been clearly shown. In trees, besides their vascular structure, two kinds of fluids are found, the *sap*, and *peculiar juices*: the sap is a fluid nearly as liquid as water, is imbibed by the roots from the soil, and is conveyed, as before stated, by the common vessels through the tree: the *peculiar juices* are the sap concocted and changed by the leaves: they are found in the proper vessels, and are thus fitted to become the aliment of the tree.

Having now related of the physiology of trees, what I consider necessary in this short disquisition, it will be proper to take a view of the *method* of Nature, in conducting her vegetable offspring to their final growths and uses. 'All things change,' is her motto, and wherever we turn we find ample proofs of its truth: the plant originates from the seed of its parent, is fed by its *ashes*, passes through the various stages of germination and vegetation, scatters the germs of a new generation, and finally nourishes its own offspring after the manner itself was supplied.

All vegetable substances, when left to themselves, undergo the *putrefactive fermentation*; or in other words, they are gradually decomposed, and decay. It is necessary to this end, that water should be present, and that the temperature should not be below 45°, nor so high as to evaporate the water hastily. This process, therefore, depends upon the presence of moisture and heat: but the moisture must not be perpetually renewing; neither may the subject be submerged, nor the heat too great. Any temperature between 45° and 90° assists this process, and the nearer it approaches the maximum, the more rapid will be the process. When these circumstances meet in a tree which has passed its age of maturity; or in timber, the elementary parts of the water, the oxygen and hydrogen gases, attracted

by and attracting the principles of the wood, aided by heat, (and this heat is generated by the moist vegetable substance, as is exemplified in the case of damp hay or saw-dust) *separate*; and the fermenting and vegetating principle, oxygen gas, begins to act: the consequences of this action are, the formation of water, the springing forth of fungus,* which owes its origin to the action of the oxygen gas upon the sap and juices of the tree (and be it remembered, that timber, as now felled and used, is *loaded* with them), that stimulus, assisted by the heat generated, exciting an unnatural or abortive vegetation of these, in consequence of the tree not possessing its complete organs to modify the vegetation; gaseous matter is also generated (carbonic acid gas); the loss of the weight and cohesion of the wood ensues, and this process is carried on until the whole vegetable matter has undergone a complete change; the organic texture is at last destroyed, and there results a heap of unorganized carbonaceous matter.

It now remains to show that the putrefaction of wood, and the dry-rot, are one and the same process, under different modifications: this I shall endeavour to do by comparing the cases.

The agents then in the first case are water and heat; the agents in the second case are the same.

The circumstances are alike; being only more favourable to its rapidity in the second. It is found in the first, that when the water is frequently renewed, or the wood is submersed, that it proceeds very slowly, or not at all; and when the wood is kept dry, it does not occur. In the second case these circumstances affect in the same manner: those parts of a ship that are covered with water, as the floors and keel, very rarely have dry-rot; and those parts that are kept dry by being exposed to the sun and air, are also free from it; except, indeed, when they happen to be continuations of timbers, the lower ends of which are in situations favouring the

change. Again, a high temperature is a favourable circumstance in the first case; so it is in the second, as is exemplified in the case of sending newly built ships into hot climates; where they are remarked to decay in a rapid manner. Moisture is applicable in the same manner; let us notice those parts of ships most infected, and we shall find that there heat and moisture prevail; from the heads of the first futlocks up to the gun-deck beams, along the dead-wood, in the stern-frame, in the cant-bodies fore and aft, its ravages are most remarkable; and precisely in those situations do heat and moisture most prevail; there is a difference in situation and of circumstances in the latter case, which will account for its amazing rapidity, namely, the shutting up the timber in a damp state, as it were in a box; and surrounding it with a damp, heated and stagnant atmosphere; this must, according to the nature of the thing, cause it to decay faster than that which has the advantage of an occasional renewal of water and of air, and the frequent action of the sun's rays.

The phenomena are the same; being slightly modified by circumstances and situation, and passing with greater rapidity. In the first case they are the occasional appearance of fungi; the extrication of carbonic acid gas; the formation of water; the reduction of the weight, solidity; and loss of the strength of the wood; and the destruction of its fibrous and organic texture.

In the second case these are also the phenomena; the fungus is always found to precede it; this is so notorious, that it has been supposed by many to be the cause of it. The extrication of carbonic acid gas is also constantly found; this is evident from the unwholesome state of the atmosphere of ships below the gun-deck, when rotten; especially if they have not been ventilated for some considerable time. The loss of weight, strength, and solidity of the timber, are its principal and most obvious characteristics. The formation of water is found one of its indications, as frequently, before fungus appears, the surface of the timber is covered with moisture. The destruction of the fibrous and organic texture is not so generally seen, because the ships are generally opened, and repaired *before* the decay has proceeded *so far*, yet it may be traced; it is not unusual to find the centre of a timber re-

* It is, I think, worthy of remark, that the putrefactive fermentation of animal matter is productive of animals of inferior organisation to their parent: thus the varieties of maggots are the production of that process, in man and brute; so the fungi in their varieties, owe their origin to the same cause.

duced to an impalpable powder. The result is similar, being a mass of carbonaceous powdery matter.

Having thus compared the two cases, and found the agents, phenomena, and results the same, the conclusion is irresistible, that they are the same process.

* * **DRY-ROT.**—In page 269 of vol. I. of the present series of the *Analectic Magazine*, is inserted a review of the treatises of Richard Perring, and Wm. Taylor Money, esq., on ship building, including some observations on the dry-rot, to which we refer our readers. It is there ascribed to the vegetable life of the tree not yet extinct, and the remains of sap in the timber, owing either to its not being felled as it ought to be, in the winter—or not sufficiently dried before it is put to use.

There are four hypotheses still maintained on this difficult subject: 1. That the dry-rot is owing, as above mentioned, to the remains of sap in the timber. 2. To a parasite fungus that grows on and within the timber, nourished by the juices still remaining in the wood. 3. To an insect similar in its habits and properties to the teredo that infests ship timber: and 4thly, To the chemical decomposition of the wood itself, as maintained in the dissertation now inserted, but, as it seems to us, not sufficiently supported.

If it were a chemical decomposition of the wood itself, we should find in the dry-rot some of its chemical elements, the gases, water, pyroligneous acid,

charcoal; we find none of these: the joists that support the floors are converted into a kind of powder; whose appearance is inconsistent with this theory. The subject however is very important, and still requires investigation: for this reason it is, we have inserted the present paper. ED. AN.

CHEVALIER ST. GEORGE.

The chevalier St. George, so renowned for his skill in fencing, once stood close to a gentleman at the Opera, at Paris, who was not very clean in his person, which occasioned the chevalier to go to another part of the parterre. The gentleman, who supposed the chevalier went to find out a better place for seeing the ballet, followed him: the chevalier moved again, and was again followed. This took place a third and even a fourth time, when his patience being quite exhausted, he exclaimed, 'When people are offensive they should stand by themselves like other nasty noun substantives.' The gentleman took fire, and challenged the other to fight. 'Pho!' cried the chevalier, 'I am St. George, and should be through your lungs twice before you could touch me once.' 'If you were the devil,' replied the gentleman, 'you should fight me.' 'That,' rejoined the chevalier, 'would answer no possible end to either of us, for if you were even able to kill me, you wouldn't stink a bit less, and if I were to kill you, you'd stink a deal more.' *Eur. Mag.*

ART. X.—*Poetry.*

For the Analectic Magazine.

SONNET TO DESPAIR.

HAIL fell Despair! within yon wilder'd cave,
I saw thee stretch'd in agonizing sleep;
I saw thee start, and heard a murmur deep,
Like lonely winds that sweep the outlaw's grave.

Within thy cave I saw a taper gleam;
Its light shone dimly o'er thy faded breast;
On thy pale brow a paler hand was prest.
The taper fell—and thou didst cease to dream.

The orb eclipsed, once more beholds the light,
The wintry stem brings forth another flower,
And Fancy builds again her broken bower;
But not for thee—sole exile of the night.

H. T. F.

Combahes, S. Carolina, April 25, 1817.

THE SOLDIER'S GRAVE.

Abstulit atra Dies et funeraverunt acerbo.—VIRG.

BENEATH this flow'r-deck'd rising mound,
 Here rest the ashes of the brave;
 A hero sleeps, by glory crown'd:
 It is a patriot soldier's grave!
 How late his manly heart beat high,
 His country from each wrong to save;
 But soon that heart was doom'd to lie,
 Cold, cold within a soldier's grave.

Methinks I hear a footstep's tread;—
 How lightly, where yon osiers wave!
 Perhaps by silence it is led,
 The spirit of the soldier's grave!

Here Pity oft, at Mem'ry's call,
 Repairs to view this narrow cave,
 And dew with tears the flow'ry pall
 That covers o'er the soldier's grave!

Here too a widow's broken sighs
 Breathe o'er the relics of the brave,
 And here her helpless orphan's eyes
 Weep torrents on the soldier's grave.

His country's summons he obey'd;
 Fair liberty he died to save,
 And in this lonely spot is laid,
 Unknown but as the soldier's grave.

For him the muse shall sweep the string,
 For him who fell among the brave,
 And virgin hands with wreaths of spring
 Shall decorate the soldier's grave.

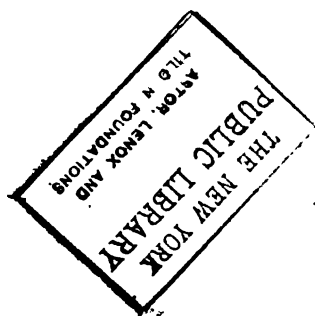
E. J.

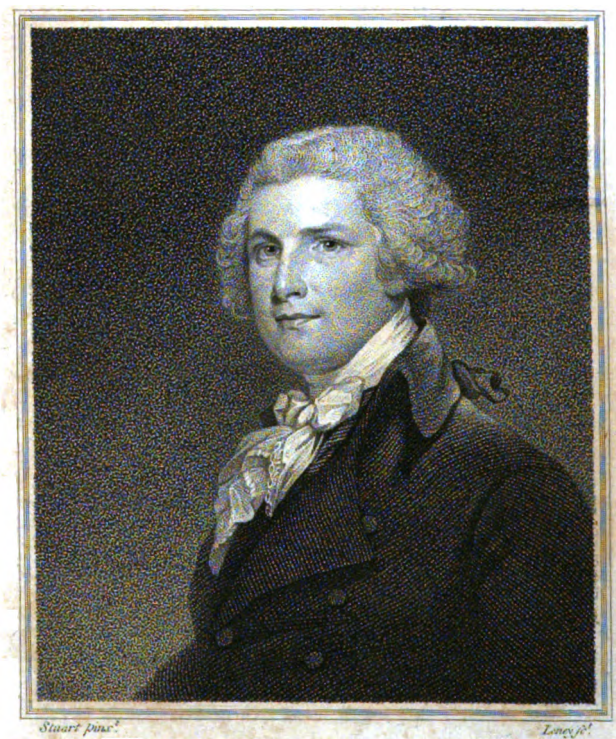
Charleston, June 25, 1817.

AN ENIGMA.—BY LORD BYRON.

From Ackerman's Repository.

'Twas whisper'd in heav'n, and mutter'd in hell,
 And Echo caught softly the sound as it fell;
 In the confines of earth, 'twas permitted to rest,
 And the depths of the ocean its presence confest;
 'Twas seen in the lightning, and heard in the thunder,
 'Twill be found in the spheres when riven asunder;
 It was given to man with his earliest breath,
 It assists at his birth, and attends him in death,
 Presides o'er his happiness, honour, and health,
 Is the prop of his house, and the end of his wealth;
 It begins ev'ry hope, ev'ry wish it must bound,
 And, though unassuming, with monarchs is crown'd;
 In the heaps of the miser 'tis hoarded with care,
 But is sure to be lost in the prodigal heir;
 Without it the soldier and sailor may roam,
 But wo to the wretch who expels it from home;
 In the whispers of conscience its voice will be found,
 Nor e'er in the whirlwind of passion be drown'd;
 It softens the heart, and, though deaf to the ear,
 'Twill make it acutely and instantly hear;
 But in shades let it rest like an elegant flow'r—
 Oh! breathe on it softly—it dies in an hour.





ALEXANDER JAMES DALLAS ESQ.

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THE ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

OCTOBER, 1817.

ART. I.—*Analysis of the Papers contained in the Edinburgh Review for March, 1817. No. 55.*

‘ART. 1.—*Minutes of the Evidence taken before the Committee appointed by the House of Commons, to inquire into the State of Mendicity and Vagrancy in the Metropolis and its Neighbourhood. Ordered to be printed July 11th, 1815. To which is added, the General Report, ordered to be printed May 28th, 1816.*’—This article is, as usual, not an account of the book it pretends to review, but a dissertation consisting of two parts: 1st, an examination of the policy of the poor laws as a system: 2dly, an account of the methods taking to support the poor in Scotland. It is written in a laboured, affected style, totally unlike the general style of writing that pervades the Edinburgh Review; and though not without merit as to its general reasoning, it throws little light on the subject, by the account given of the charitable system of Scotland, which amounts to little more than Sunday contributions at the church door, and private donations. As the subject is very interesting at home, we shall take the present occasion to offer our own views of the pauper system of Pennsylvania.

The general objections to the poor laws, are sufficiently numerous, and at the same time obvious.

1. They hold out in their theory, and they furnish in their practice, rewards for idleness, prodigality, and thoughtlessness. They say to the poor man, eat, drink, and be merry—take no thought for the morrow—however vicious, or however idle, or however wasteful, the laws give you a support, when you have nothing else to support you. The poor know this; they feel it, and they act upon it.

Come let us the cannikin share,
For who has a right to mind us?
Hang sorrow, and drive away care,
The parish is bound to find us.

2. They are the support of the distiller—of the tipling house: all the money that necessity would compel the poor to hoard up against the hour of sickness and of want, is now spent in the purchase of indulgences that enervate their bodies and deprave their minds.

3. They are a most oppressive tax upon the hard earnings of industry and frugality in favour of idleness and vice.

4. They tend to propagate filthiness and disease; because these are always attendants upon idleness and vice. In the city of Phila-

delphia, they operate as encouragements upon debauchery in particular. The late report of the committee of public economy in this city, on the state of the poor, is a statement more favourable than the facts would warrant.

5. The poor laws operate so as to increase the number of paupers indefinitely, by the temptations they hold out to spend-thrift habits, and their direct discouragement of frugality and saving; for what poor man will be industrious, who can be idle with impunity? hence in every parish in England, the poor rates have been upon the increase for this century past: in Philadelphia, that increase is so alarming, as to threaten us with a tax that is now oppressive, and, ere long, will be intolerable.

6. The poor rates do not relieve the really indigent and deserving; they are exhausted by the bold, impudent, vociferous demands of those who know that poverty alone gives them a claim which will be attended to, and who take care to be poor, for the purpose of demanding relief as a debt due to them. Instead of a charity, for which the receiver should be thankful, the poor consider themselves injured, if their wants are not fully supplied.

7. Hence, those who are relieved, have no gratitude for the relief afforded. This right to be idle, and extravagant, is equally strong with their right to demand support because they are so, and to be insolent whether admitted or rejected. Exceptions to all this there are occasionally; but those who have put themselves in the way of knowing the facts, know this representation to be just in all its leading features.

8. Suppose an industrious man taxed to the poor rate ten dollars; he is compelled to pay this sum toward the support of an idle and unproductive inhabitant; it brings no return. If he spent it in any form of enjoyment, or utility, he would give ten dollars of employment to those who need it, and who are willing to earn it, and which the poor laws in this case deprive them of. So that, what is thus paid to the idle poor, is withheld from the industrious poor.

9. They annihilate all mutuality of kind feelings between those who support and those who are supported. What would otherwise be a donation now becomes a right: Hence,

10. They tend to annihilate all kind and charitable feelings toward the distressed. People do not like to be taxed first by the laws, and next by their feelings; especially when they see the ill consequences that flow from the relief actually afforded.

In Great Britain there is only one opinion on the policy of these laws: no two men there, who think at all, think differently: all agree that the poor laws are inadequate to, and ill calculated for the evil meant to be remedied; that they are a most useless and oppressive burthen, which ought to be shaken off, if the legislature knew how. Malthus has proposed their abolition, by notice publicly given, that persons born after a given day should in no case be entitled to relief by poor laws.

In this country, we are apt to follow every example the British think proper to set us; we have adopted their poor laws, with all their oppressions and absurdities; with all their legal intricacies, and legal expenses; with all the temptations to dissipate the public money in showy establishments, and petty depredations; and we feel now all the consequences, in the present oppressive tax; and the melancholy prospect of its incessant increase; for it is now demonstrated in England, that the poor system is the fruitful parent of that very poverty it pretends to relieve.

A poor house, ought to be the last, the reluctant resort of pecuniary distress: hence the poor ought to be able, by means of reasonable industry, to earn better living at home, than the coarse, scanty fare of a poor house: for coarse and scanty it ought to be, on system.

On the contrary, we give a premium to idleness, by means of plenty, cleanliness, and comfort.

Those who can usefully employ every limb of their body, ought to be made so to do, at the poor house, by means of work contrived for the purpose of compelling labour there, and forcing it upon those whose idleness has driven them to that asylum. In our establishment, we treat the poor as we do our swine when we wish to fatten them, plenty to eat and nothing to do.

Why should we not compel that abominable nuisance, our black population, to maintain their own poor? They earn enough to do it and they are insolent enough and idle enough to justify us in compelling them to do themselves the justice of maintaining their own idlers. Set them to hard work when they go to the alms house, and give them nothing but coarse bread and water when they come there, and you will diminish the number of your coloured applicants. The most idle, the most insolent, the most depraved, the most thankless part of your population, the heaviest tax on your pockets, and your patience, are the free blacks. If you cannot get rid of them, control them.

It were much to be wished that some plan were draughted to abolish our poor laws—or till this can be done, that some rigid system of hard work and coarse fare, should be adopted at our alms house, where economy can hardly be said to be the order of the day in any part of it, so far as our information goes.

But the evil is progressing; fast enough perhaps to bring with it its own cure: for it will surely bring with it its own increase.

Savings-banks, have been found an excellent system in the old country, and, as it seems to us, would be equally beneficial here. We are not of opinion that any great public evil would ensue, by permitting a few persons to starve, whose wants were induced by a long series of idleness, wastefulness, drunkenness, and vice; or who would refuse to contribute a weekly pittance to preserve themselves and their families from future want.

We have stated that our poor laws are the same nearly as those of England, whose system we imitate, not merely in the good sense that serves as its foundation, but in all the negligence and absurdity

which, by defeating the work-house system, has rendered that good sense nugatory. In the meagre essay before us, there is some argument, and little fact. But as the general facts relating to the British poor are of great importance to us in America, we shall lay before our readers a few outlines of "the prospect before us."

When the monasteries in England were in full play, during the reign of Henry VIII, they maintained and increased their votaries among the lower class of people, by a very liberal distribution of alms, particularly in the form of provisions. When these religious houses were suppressed, the nation was crowded with idle people, who had been accustomed to derive their great source of subsistence from the monasteries. Many attempts were made to relieve them, and get rid of the burthen, but ineffectually, until the 43d year of queen Elizabeth, when the act was passed which is the foundation of the modern system of poor laws. By this act, overseers were appointed, whose duty was restricted, 1st, To relieve the old, the blind, the lame, the sick, and, generally, those and those only *who were not able to work*. 2dly, To find work for those who, being able to work, should complain that they had no work to do. These were no otherwise to be relieved, than by finding them employment in a work-house, and paying them for what they did, until they could find a better employment elsewhere.

By degrees, the overseers in that country threw off from their shoulders the finding of work for those who were, or pretended to be, out of employ: they found it easier to supply them with money, at the expense of the parish, than to find them work. Hence the funds were swallowed up, by the idle poor, able to labour, which ought to have been applied exclusively to the lame, the sick, the blind, the old.

Faithful to our principle of imitating every thing British, we have pursued the same plan exactly in this country.

Secondly, the overseers generally contrived to make every thing a job of profit for themselves and their friends; building, altering, repairing, projecting, destroying—the apothecary's bill, the attorney's bill, and all other kinds of contract—the feasting, the carousing, the dinners which the ex-overseers, who knew, by experience, what was going forward, never failed to attend—the relief charged to casual poor, who could not be found or brought to confront the charge—were all sources of profitable peculation to the overseer of the poor. We do not say the case is so here; but in our back counties of Pennsylvania, it is commonly taken for granted that a county commissioner, at the end of three years, shall have saved enough to pay for building a new barn; and where there is so much money to find its way among the poor, it is not impossible but some of it may, in a few years hence, lag behind for the benefit of the overseer.

We have no hesitation in stating, that these surmises are deduced from the nature of the office and of the duty: that they are well known to be generally credited in England, and proofs abundant of the truth of them are given in the treatises published on the subject in that portion of Great Britain. How far they may be well founded here,

as to overseers of the poor, past or present, we have not examined, and have no right to say. But where so much imitation prevails of the errors complained of in England, suspicion will be at work: and some answer ought to be furnished to the question, *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?*

Let us view the progress of the poor rates in England.

In 1650 they were	188,811	£. sterling.
1698	-	-	-	-	819,000	
1700	-	-	-	-	1,000,000	
1751	-	-	-	-	3,000,000	
1776	-	-	-	-	1,720,316	
1783 to 1785	-	-	-	-	2,184,904	
1803	-	-	-	-	5,348,205	
1815	-	-	-	-	8,000,000	
1817 computed at	-	-	-	-	10,000,000	

And the public and private charities at five millions. *In proclive ruit.*

We have sufficient reason for believing that the career of increase in the city of Philadelphia, is so similar to the foregoing most alarming statement, that if something be not done soon to remedy the evil, the inhabitants will fly from the tax. In fact the poor rate, and the county tax, are at this moment among the causes of emigration from the city.

If we cannot (as we ought) abolish the whole system of poor laws, at least, let us

Tax ardent spirits and tipling houses ten fold their present proportion.

Refuse relief even to the disabled, if they have brought themselves to want by drunkenness and vice.

Relieve no man or woman who can work: unless they will work hard at the alms-house for a bare subsistence, on work to be found there. Work can be found at the jail, and why not at our alms-house?

Institute savings-banks.

Make the coloured population support their own poor.

Let the fare in the alms-house, be worse than the usual fare of a labouring man.

Provide a pharmacopœia pauperum, out of whose limits the physicians shall not be permitted to prescribe.

Reject all siphilitic patients.

In this way some good may be done, and a public evil daily increasing be checked in its threatening progress.

' Art. 2.—*Lettres écrites d'Italie en 1812 et 1813, à Mr. Charles Pictet, l'un des Rédacteurs de la Bibliothèque Britannique. Par Frederic Sullin de Chateauvieux. En 2 tomes. 8vo. A Paris, chez J. Paschoud, Libraire, 22, Rue Mazarine. 1816.*'—Wearied and disgusted with sentimental travellers in Italy—with travelling connoisseurs, amateurs, and pretenders of all kinds to taste and virtue—with classical travellers, such as Addison and Eustace, who stuff

their pages full of common-place quotations from Virgil and Horace, and Claudian and Silius Italicus; and not content with these, drench us with doses of modern Latin, from Vida, Samnazarus, Fracastorius, Rutilius, &c., we are glad to turn to pages of useful information and common sense. This is a review of a book on the agriculture and statistics of Italy, which ought to be translated. It contains much information that Arthur Young has omitted, on the methods of irrigation, on the factitious terraces, on the implements of agriculture; and in particular concerning the *malaria*, or pestilential region of Italy, like the campagna of Rome, and the immediate suburbs of that city, which this dreadful scourge is destined, ere long, to depopulate. The cause seems hitherto to have escaped the researches instituted concerning it. Although the unhealthiness of the Pontine marshes may be accounted for, from the well known effects of a burning sun on a swamp luxurious in vegetation, we cannot yet account for the death-dealing climate of the Palatine and Quirinal hills; or of the gardens within Rome itself; where, notwithstanding the dry soil, the perfect cultivation, and the beautiful clearness of the atmosphere, no one can with impunity spend a night out of doors, though they may be safe in the chamber that looks into the garden. Is the danger owing to volcanic exhalation?

‘Art. 3.—*Speech of the Right Honourable George Canning in the House of Commons, on Wednesday, January 29th, 1817, on the Motion for an address to his Royal Highness the Prince Regent, on his most gracious Speech from the throne.*’—This is a history of the alarms created, presumed, or magnified by the British government, to furnish reasons for their late encroachments on the liberty of the subject in England; a country where despotism seems making rapid and successful strides; where the character of the people is gradually changing; where resistance to encroachment is hopeless; and where the friend of reasonable and moderate reform, equally dreads the violent innovations projected by an ignorant mob on the one hand, and the bold usurpations of government on the other: a government whose power is too strong to be resisted by force, and whose determinations set remonstrance at defiance. It seems settled, that by means of rigorous laws, and an overpowering military force, all opposition shall be suppressed, both in parliament and out.

The present paper is a very able essay on the side of opposition politics in Great Britain: as to the statements made in it, and the colouring given to them, we take no part; but it is written with so much ability as to deserve attentive perusal. We all know that opposition is accustomed to charge ministers with creating false alarms; here, as well as elsewhere. Who does not remember the controversy among us during the short period of Mr. Adams’s administration on the Tub plots, the Taylor plots, the Ocean plots, &c. &c. In all these cases, credit will be given or withheld, according to the political sect of the reader who is appealed to.

We gave a short account of the state of parties in England in our magazine for August last, to which we refer our readers.

'Art. 4.—*Aus Meinem Leben. VON GOETHE. Zweiter Abtheilung, Erster Theil. Stuttgart Tubingen. 1816.*'—This is the memoirs of the life of Goethe, written by himself, with all the egotism and self-complacency that we might expect from an author of some reputation, who thinks rather more of himself than the world thinks of him.

'Art. 5.—*Interesting Facts relating to the Fall and Death of Joachim Murat, King of Naples. Second Edition. By FRANCIS MACIRONE, late Aid-de-Camp to King Joachim.*'—This is not a review of the book in question, so much as a dissertation on the overbearing and faithless conduct of the British government towards foreign nations, particularly the Italian States, since the ultimate defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte. It is a very able opposition-paper, which well deserves the attention of those who take interest in the politics of Great Britain. M. Macirone, and king Joachim seem both of them to have good right to complain of the measures adopted against them. At the end of this review there is an extract relating to the death of Berthier, which, if it were true, would be curious; but it requires to be better authenticated before it can receive full credit.

'Art. 6.—1. *Common Consent, the Basis of the Constitution of England; or, Parliamentary Reform considered and tried by the Tests of Law and Reason.* 8vo. London, 1817.'

'2. *The Englishman's Manual; or, a Dialogue between a Tory and a Reformer.* By Walter Fawkes, Esq. 8vo. London, 1817.

'3. *A Letter on the Expediency of a Reform in Parliament.* By Robert Harding Evans. 8vo. London, 1817.'—This paper is an elaborate dissertation on the subject of annual parliaments; and is meant as the flag of the new whigs or moderate reformers.

The advocates for a reform in parliament, have almost uniformly attempted to show, that annual elections and annual parliamentary sessions, were the birth-right of the English people, and formed an essential part of the ancient system of English representation. The author of the present dissertation, shows (as we think clearly) that the expressions cited in proof of this supposition, prove nothing at all, as to annual elections of the representatives, but have a bearing only on annual sessions of those representatives in parliament after they were chosen. That the triennial act of William the third was the first statute that limited the duration of parliament to a fixed and certain term of years.

The author then proceeds to investigate (not the expediency but) the right of the people to universal suffrage, as founded on ancient usage; and in our opinion he has successfully combatted and completely overthrown those unsupported pretensions of modern reformers. There is no satisfactory proof in the parliamentary history of England, either of annual elections, or of elections by universal

suffrage; and we greatly doubt the political expediency of adopting either the one measure or the other, even if the reformers should get the upper hand in the course of national events in that island.

‘Art. 7.—1. *Wat Tyler, a Dramatic Poem*. London, 1817.’

‘2. *A Letter to William Smith, Esq. M. P. from Robert Southey, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 45. London, 1817.’—The Edinburgh Reviewers have usually been considered as masters in the art of sarcastic vituperation; and it must be confessed, that the numbers of this review contain many articles of severe irony, and biting sarcasm, equally distinguished for their virulence and their wit. The following, which, long as it is, our readers will not reprove us for extracting without mutilation, is an article of this description. The feelings of the reviewer have been acuated, not merely by the room afforded for such remarks by Mr. Southey, but by long and known hostility to that gentleman, as a critic and as a politician. Mr. Southey is well known to have been a Jacobin and reformist of the most decided stamp; one of the *tetes enragees*. Government bought him off; made him poet laureat; gave him a place and a salary; and fixed him as the associate of Gifford in conducting the Quarterly Review: a review, conducted with much classical taste and general ability; but whose indiscriminate defence of every measure of the government, and of every part and particle of the existing system in church and state—whose virulent abuse of the best intentioned proposals of amendment, or complaints of existing evils too palpable to be denied—have disgusted all persons of good sense and moderation wherever that review has reached. We consider it as a review destitute of all pretensions to modesty and moderation—utterly unworthy of all credit in its statements relating either to church doctrine, church discipline, or governmental politics or proceedings. It is the work of men hired and paid for a purpose. In all other respects, it is conducted with admirable talent, and in the classical department, with manifest superiority over its witty rival the Edinburgh Review. They are both party publications: the *Quarterly*, belongs to the ultra-royalists, the legitimates, the treasury-bench optimists: the *Edinburgh*, to the Foxite whigs, the novi homines of British politics, the moderate anti-republican reformists.

Mr. Smith, in the British house of commons, alluding to the violent measures recommended and adopted by the ministry and their writers against the modern reformers, took occasion to allude to the violence of Mr. Southey in particular, (who seemed to pursue the present partisans of his former opinions “*with all the zeal of a renegade*.”) This expression gave rise to the pamphlet of Mr. Southey now under review. That review we proceed to offer without alteration for the amusement of our readers:

When we first saw this extraordinary drama, with its significant mottoes and advertisements, we set it down in our provincial innocence, as a wicked and extravagant parody of the worthy Laureate’s earlier manner—maliciously contrasted, as to the subject, with the

loyal sublimity of his late official Lyrics:—For though we knew well enough that the said worthy and consistent person had been a bit of a Jacobin in his youth—had coquetted in verse with Mary Woolstoncraft and the ghost of Madam Roland,—and extolled our Regicides at home, and deplored the execution of Brissot as the damning sin of the French Revolution;—nay, though we knew that the first of his six Epics had been written for the purpose of reviling the war we were then carrying on against the holy Republic, and the detestable policy of ‘the Dark Vizier,’ as he ingeniously termed Mr. Pitt,—we really never imagined that he could, at any time of his life, have been capable of producing any thing at once so insane and so silly as the piece now before us.

Even when we learned, from the perusal of certain judicial proceedings, that the work had been actually acknowledged by the excellent Laureate, we hesitated about making it the subject of a review. It was not clear to us that the manuscript had been very handsomely come by;—and the poor man, we fancied—poor provincial innocents again!—must be so confounded and ashamed of himself, that we had not the heart to aggravate his awkward pain by any public notice of the transaction. The perusal of some late numbers of the *Quarterly Review*, however, somewhat shook this resolution of forbearance;—and that of the second publication, of which we have prefixed the title, served altogether to change it. In that exquisite performance we find, not only that Mr. Southey is not at all ashamed of having written *Wat Tyler*,—but that he is exceedingly proud of it,—and that he actually regards it as one of his most generous and ingenious productions. If there be any defect, indeed, in his moral constitution—which to be sure it is very presumptuous to suppose—we imagine it consists in something quite opposite to an excessive tendency to be ashamed of any thing which he does, or which befalls him;—and accordingly, we must take the liberty to say, at once, that a more bloated mass of self-conceit, absurdity and insolence, never fell under our view, than the Letter which he has here given to the public; and that there is something so irresistibly ludicrous in the magnificent tone which he assumes, when contrasted with the occasion of his present appearance, that, compassionate as the case otherwise is, it is not easy to conceive any thing much more diverting than the two pieces which we now venture to recommend to the attention of our readers. The Dramatic Poem is the text—and must have the precedence; but the author’s commentary is, in our poor judgment, the most poetical and dramatic of the two, and will require rather more notice.

Of the history of the poem, we do not know that we can speak with perfect accuracy. It was written, it seems, in the year 1794, when Mr. Southey was about twenty-one years of age; and was, at the time, intended by him for publication. But the person into whose hands it was put, did not then choose to venture on that measure; and it seems to have been thrown aside and neglected,

till it came, we really do not at all know by what means, into the possession of some one who seems to have admired Mr. Southey's generous opinions rather more than his prudent ones,—and who, accordingly, lately gave it to the world, principally, as we imagine, with the view of making idle people merry by the strange contrast which they exhibited,—and partly, perhaps, with the hope of diminishing the authority of the Laureate's loyal argumentations, by this exhibition of his former extravagance on the other side. On its first appearance, its authenticity was a good deal suspected, and stoutly denied by the author's political employers; and at this period, we understand, the great object was to get it suppressed without the necessity of any acknowledgment. But, upon reference to counsel learned in the law, it was unfortunately discovered, that no injunction against the sale could be applied for, unless by a person distinctly stating himself as the author or proprietor. This, it must be confessed, was rather a distressing dilemma; and accordingly produced a pause of some weeks, if we are not misinformed; in the author's operations. During all this time, however, the belief in its authenticity became more prevalent; and at last the Laureate, seeing he could not longer maintain his *incognito*, and being, no doubt, excessively scandalized at the great mischief which was thus wrought in his name, came boldly forward, acknowledged the work, and craved an injunction against its further publication. Here, however, he was met by another very provoking obstacle. The work, it was impudently contended by the publishers, was manifestly of a seditious and wicked tendency; and as no author could have any legal or beneficial interest in such a performance, so the Laureate had no right to intermeddle with the sale of it. Upon this ground, accordingly, the Lord Chancellor refused the injunction;—and as the Attorney-General has not yet been prevailed upon to prosecute it as a seditious libel, the sale has gone on ever since without obstruction; and the only result of Mr. Southey's interference has been, to place it beyond all dispute among his acknowledged works.

The work itself may be very soon despatched. It is a rude and feeble attempt to dramatize the story of the well-known popular insurrection under Wat Tyler, in the reign of Richard II. The writing throughout is inconceivably poor and childish; and the whole scenes and characters represented without the least force, spirit, or ingenuity. A more pitiful piece of puling, indeed, was never indited by a young girl at a boarding-school;—nor is there any thing whatever to entitle it to a moment's attention, but the incredible extravagance of the doctrines, which it inculcates with all the tranquillity of the most consummate arrogance and delightful self-complacency. The object of the author is to show, not only that kings and courts are oppressive and domineering,—but that all distinctions of rank are ridiculous—and all exclusive use of property a mere robbery and abomination. Kings, nobles, and landlords, therefore, ought instantly to be put down; and all the men, women

and children in the country, put forthwith in possession of their share of property and sovereignty. The lamentable weakness of the reasonings by which these considerable innovations are recommended, and the miserable tameness and baldness of the composition, struck us, at first, as being in singular contrast with the boldness of the conception;—but, upon reflection, we believe that the combination is quite natural,—both having their root in the utter debility of the understanding, of which habitual lowness and occasional extravagance are equally symptomatic. A very few specimens, taken at random, as the book opens, will abundantly justify our opinion. Hob Carter and Wat are discoursing on politics in the first act, when Wat pathetically observes—

‘Hob—I have only six groats in the world,
And they must soon by law be taken from me!’ p. 5.

Hob manfully rejoins—

‘Curse on these taxes—one succeeds another—
Our ministers—panders of a king’s will—
Drain all our wealth away—waste it in revels,’ &c. p. 5, 6.

Wat then elegantly proceeds in the same weighty and original style—

‘*What matters me* who wears the crown of France?
Whether a Richard or a Charles possess it?
They reap the glory—they enjoy the spoil—
We pay—we bleed!—The sun would shine as cheerly,
The rains of heaven as seasonably fall,
Though neither of these royal pests existed.

Hob. Nay—as for that, we poor men should fare better;
No legal robbers then should force away
The hard-earn’d wages of our honest toil.
The Parliament for ever cries, *More money,*
The service of the state demands more money.
Just heaven! of what service is the state?’ p. 6, 7.

Afterwards, Wat thus powerfully exhorts his neighbours to join him in the insurrection.

‘Think of the insults, wrongs, and contumelies,
Ye bear from your proud lords:—that your hard toil
Manures their fertile fields—you plough the earth,
You sow the corn, you reap the ripen’d harvest,—
They riot in the produce!—that, like beasts,
They sell you with their land—claim all the fruits
Which the kindly earth produces as their own.
The privilege, forsooth, of noble birth!’ p. 21, 22.

Then the miseries of low birth are commemorated in the following beautiful verses—

‘Long, long labour, little rest,
Still to toil to be oppress’d;
Drain’d by taxes of his store,
Punish’d next for being poor:
This is the poor wretch’s lot,
Born within the straw-roof’d cot.’
‘When Adam delv’d and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?’ p. 23, 24.

But the lofty vein of the piece is reserved for John Ball the priest, who, when complimented by the carter and the rest of them, replies with a noble modesty—

‘My brethren, I am plain John Ball,—your friend,
Your equal—’

and then delivers an harangue, the burden of which is still, that it is quite monstrous and intolerable that the poor labourer should plough the fields, and the landlord take the sheaves to himself. The conclusion is much in the peculiar emphatic vein which distinguishes the Laureate odes of the same eminent author.

‘There is enough for all; but your proud baron
Stands up, and, arrogant of strength, exclaims,

“I am a lord—by nature I am noble:

These fields are mine, for I was born to them,
I was born in the castle—you, poor wretches,
Whelp’d in the cottage, are by birth my slaves.”

Almighty God! such blasphemies are utter’d!

Almighty God! such blasphemies believ’d!” p. 29, 30.

By and by the King, and an Archbishop, and a Chief-Justice, are brought in, to display a scene of the most naked, silly, and incredible cowardice, perjury and falsehood;—and they and their offices are held up to ridicule and hatred, with all the effect that the exceeding feebleness of the author’s genius can produce. In order to bring the royal style and dignity into contempt, this learned antiquary and powerful satirist thus repeats it—

‘Richard the Second, by the grace of God,
Of England, Ireland, France, and Scotland, King,
And of the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed!’

—which excellent joke is again repeated in the recitation of the royal charter.—At the parley, this perjured Monarch is made to say—

‘You should have tried
By milder means—petition’d at the throne—

The throne will always listen to petitions.’ p. 42.

To which the valiant insurgent thus nobly answers—

‘Petitioning for pity is most weak,

The *Sovereign People* ought to demand justice!’—

Afterwards, John Ball tells the wicked courtiers, that it is they, and not he, that are guilty of treason—because that they ‘Rebel against the People’s Sovereignty.’ And one of his pupils very emphatically exclaims—

‘Why are not all these empty ranks abolish’d—
King, Slave, and Lord, “ennobled into Man?”

Are we not all equal?”

By and by the Archbishop is made to urge the King to perjure himself—and the Chief-Justice makes jokes on the prostitution of the law. John Ball is finally brought to trial, where, with heroic constancy he maintains

‘That all mankind as brethren must be equal;
That privileg’d orders of society

Are evil and oppressive; that the right
Of property is a juggle to deceive
The poor whom you oppress.' p. 64.

and, upon this confession, he is forthwith sentenced by Sir John Tresilian, in the following words—which, we have no doubt, Mr. Southey thought admirably calculated to expose the mock-majesty of Courts of justice, and to inflame the popular indignation against the cruel punishments which they sometimes award—

'John Ball, whereas you are accused before us
Of stirring up the people to rebellion,
And preaching to them strange and dangerous doctrines;
And whereas your behaviour to the court
Has been most insolent and contumacious;
Insulting majesty:—And since you have pleaded
Guilty to all these charges: I condemn you
To death: You shall be hang'd by the neck,
But not till you are dead—your bowels open'd—
Your heart torn out and burnt before your face—
Your traitorous head be sever'd from your body—
Your body quarter'd, and expos'd upon
The city gates—a terrible example—
And the Lord God have mercy on your soul!' p. 68.

Such is the work, of which, and of the doctrines it contains, Mr. Southey now assures us, that he sees no reason whatever for being ashamed, before God or before man—that it is written as a youth of twenty might be expected to write on such a subject—that if he were now to dramatize that subject anew, he should have little to alter, although there might be much to add;—and, finally, that his censors would not be the worse, 'were they to catch from it a little of the youthful generosity which it breathes.'—It is a fine thing to be thus in love with one's self—and fairly indemnifies a man, we take it, for all the ridicule which it provokes. We have but one or two very plain remarks to offer.

In the first place, we think it pretty natural to conclude, that a man who thought and wrote in this way at 21, was not likely to think or write very rationally on political subjects at any age;—and when we consider, further, that this worthy author has now proclaimed to all the world, that he carried his affection for those principles so far, as actually to have formed a plan for retiring into the wilds of America with a few chosen friends, and there realizing their blessed visions of equality and common property—having been decently educated, and exposed to no persecution at home—we really must say that the fair conclusion is, that his brain is not very sufficiently timbered, and that no length of time will ever make him a sound or a safe reasoner on matters political. Such a man may come, in time, to make good dithyrambics; and, by long and industrious practice, may turn out a very pretty poet. That we do not dispute: But, for a practical statesman, we suspect there are not many people who would choose to trust him, after this specimen, or who would not be shy of following his leading, either as a reformer or a defender of the constitution.

This is our first remark. Our second is, that if such a person should ever happen to take up an opposite humour in politics, it is reasonably to be expected that he should extol lords and princes with the same extravagance with which he once attacked them; and manifest the same infirmity of judgment and impatience of temper, in justifying the abuses of government, as he had originally shown in exaggerating them;—being in both equally the object of scorn and compassion to all men of sober judgment and practical knowledge. Finally, we would observe, that if such an one, not contented with vehemently condemning all that he had formerly extolled, should proceed to abuse those who leaned rather to his old than his new creed, and call upon the law to avenge those errors of opinion through which he himself thought he had been conducted to truth, he would fully deserve to be reproached with the intolerance of a proselyte, and the malignity of a renegado;—that is to say, if any body should think it worth while to deal so seriously with a matter so ridiculous.

This is all we have to say upon the Dramatic Poem. The Letter, in laud and exposition of it, may require a little more notice. The member for Norwich, it seems, in commenting in his place on the late groundless alarms that had been excited in the country, and the needless severity with which government had been called upon to act, took occasion to observe, that some of the most violent philippics against reform, and some of the loudest exhortations to take vindictive measures to repress it, were understood to originate from quarters to which no great authority could attach, and from persons in whom such sentiments were peculiarly unbecoming. In particular, he said that certain intemperate passages, which he read from a late number of the *Quarterly Review*, were understood to be written by the author of *Wat Tyler*; with the doctrines of which exquisite piece he proceeded very briefly to contrast them,—and is said to have added, that one who could proceed to such extremities against opinions he had himself formerly professed, must be considered as acting with the malignity of a renegado. An account of these observations appeared, in the ordinary way, in the newspapers; and this is the occasion of the epistle, vituperative and self-ex-tolling, in which the poet-laureat has now entered his appeal to his country.

His first complaint is, that the attack was made in an improper place; the author not being there to defend himself. Now, whether Mr. Smith's proceeding was perfectly in good taste or not—or whether he duly consulted the dignity of parliament in thus occupying its attention with matters so insignificant—may no doubt be made a question: But, that he had a right to make what remarks he thought fit, on any printed books that were then actually in circulation,—and that without calling their authors to the bar, we apprehend to be beyond all doubt. If any injury was done to the authors, it plainly was not so much by the speech in parliament, as by its publication in the newspapers; and these papers were equally open to them as to the reporters of the debate.

But, says Mr. Southey, you could not *know*, except by report, that I wrote the passages quoted from the Quarterly Review; and *I will not tell you* whether I wrote them or not. This, we think, is not very manful; but it is sufficiently intelligible. If Mr. Southey had *not* written these passages, he would have told us plainly enough. We are a little chary, it may be supposed of this privilege of *incognito* in reviewers; and readily admit, that no one is obliged to answer impertinent questions on such a subject. Yet it is impossible to deny, that there are instances in which, we suppose with the author's consent, the fact is just as notorious as if his name had been subscribed to his article. What would Mr. Southey say, for example, if Mr. Canning or Mr. Frere were to tell him, that he had no business to know or to suspect that they had written the celebrated parodies of his republican poems in the Anti-Jacobin? The truth is, that the writers of one half of the articles in a review are impatient to be known, and take effectual measures to be so. This we take to be the case of Mr. Southey. We have understood, that he makes no secret of his having written the papers in question,—or indeed of any thing else with which he illuminates the public:—and, to be sure, though a *dilettanti* contributor may be a little shy of acknowledging his pieces, and desirous of the protection of his mask, it is hardly to be imagined that a professional bookmaker, when he publishes anonymously, has any desire to be really concealed; and accordingly, he and his publishers commonly take good care that the fame of his name shall suffer no long obscurity. The belief, that the Reviewer's invective against seditious writings, and the call on government to prosecute them with extraordinary rigour, were written by Mr. Southey, was universal in London, and the assertion we believe had been made, without contradiction, in various newspapers, before Mr. Smith alluded to it on the occasion we have mentioned. The report itself was ground enough for a statement that was necessarily hypothetical, and which now appears to have proceeded on a correct supposition: For there is no contradiction of the assertion yet—by Mr. Southey, or by any one for him. On the contrary, there is, in this Letter, an affectionate defence of the Reviewer, who, he says, may defy Mr. Smith to disprove any part of his statements; and, what is of more importance as to the present point, there is a distinct repetition of the Reviewer's most absurd and offensive assertions in the epistle now before us. If it were necessary to produce any further proofs of their identity, we might refer to the Reviewer's, singular encomium on the ingenuity and plausibility of the project for abolishing all private property—a *betise* into which nothing could possibly have seduced him but the partiality of his paternal regard for every thing that had once found favour in his own eyes. Nothing that Mr. Southey ever did or said, we are perfectly persuaded, will ever appear an object of just ridicule to Mr. Southey. Though people who go but a little way in his original career of republicanism and revolution, are treated without ceremony as scoundrels, wretches, and poisoners—against whom it

is disgraceful to the character of the nation, and most 'dangerous to the main,' that the law should not have let loose all its terrors—still *his* hallucinations are to be spoken of, not only with indulgence, but respect. His feelings are all to be supposed right—and his errors ascribed to an excess of youthful generosity,—while his silly scheme for the destruction of all property is discovered to be a grand but delusive idea, that has in some degree entered into all great schemes for a perfect society. Mr. Southey's papers may also be known, we think, by another notable characteristic. We allude not merely to the extraordinary dogmatism and asperity by which they are marked, but to his engaging habit of calling his opponents by the polite and dignified appellation of liars, scoundrels, and fellows—which we take to be peculiar to him among writers who profess to belong to the class of gentlemen. Was it in his attendance at court that he learned this choice phraseology?—Finally, it is not a little amusing to see this dignified and consistent person protesting with great solemnity, in one page, that it is impossible to know whether he wrote those papers in the *Quarterly Review* or not, because they are anonymous, and he will not tell; and in the very next, openly accusing Mr. Brougham as a writer in the *Edinburgh*. Has that gentleman told him whether, or what, he has ever written in this *Journal*? Or is it lawful to Mr. Southey alone to know, by intuition, what it is forbidden to Mr. Smith, and all the rest of the world, to infer from the most pregnant and infallible presumptions?

But we come at last to the merits of *Wat Tyler*;—and the scope of the worthy author's first observations seems to be, that nobody has a right to laugh at it, because 'it had been made public,' as he elegantly expresses himself, 'by some skulking scoundrel, who had found booksellers not more honourable than himself to undertake the publication.'—Now, these are rather bitter words, we think, considering that the work was prepared and intended for publication by the author himself—and actually failed of publication, only by the faintheartedness of the person to whom it was confided. We know nothing of the manner in which the manuscript was obtained; but with regard to the malice or moral guilt of the mere act of publication, it is plainly just the same as if the work had been actually published and forgotten in 1794, and republished and industriously circulated in 1816, on purpose to make the author ridiculous. In this respect, it would just be on a footing with the dutchess of Marlborough's republication of lord Grimstone's '*Love in a hollow tree*,' and a number of other such waggeries, habitually practised on occasion of elections and other popular contests, at which gentlemen of ordinary temper content themselves with laughing, or affecting to laugh—and for which, we believe, it would not be thought quite consistent with decorum for any body but a poet-laureate to come out with such epithets as we have now reluctantly quoted. But, let the publisher and his bookseller be as dishonourable as the poet pleases to call them—what is that to Mr. Smith, or to us, or to the thousands who cannot help tittering at the absurd figure he makes

by their assistance? If a gentleman's pocket is picked, and the contents afterwards left to be owned at the police office, is nobody to laugh at his ill spelt *billets-doux*, or his notes for extempore pleasantry, without being supposed to take part in the guilt of the pickpocket?—Now, here is Wat Tyler in the hands of the public—fairly owned and acknowledged by the poet-laureate;—and if this appear irresistibly ridiculous to all who know the professions of these two great personages, why, we think, that people have a right to laugh, or to reason on the fact, without concerning themselves in any degree with the causes which have made it notorious.

The next passage, however, goes deeper into the matter—and is mighty acute and critical.—‘For the book itself,’ says the worthy author, ‘I deny that it is a *sedition* performance.—That it is a *mischievous* publication I know—the errors which it contains being especially dangerous at this time;’—and, *therefore*, he says, he came forward to claim and to suppress it—which he would not have done had it appeared in a quiet state of the public mind. Now, nothing, we admit, can be more amiable than this solicitude for the public safety—and not many things more heroic than the self-sacrifice that is here made for its sake. Yet we cannot help expressing our conviction, that ‘the sacrifice was not at all necessary—and our doubts as to the absolute sincerity of these lofty professions. With all due respect to the learned author, we beg leave to offer it as our opinion, that his book *is* seditious—and that it is *not* at all mischievous. The criterion of sedition, is the *intention* to excite discontent and disaffection;—and it is impossible to read a page of it, without being satisfied that this was the sole aim and object of its ingenious author. But it is not in the least mischievous—for it is by far too silly to produce the slightest effect on any human being. Indeed, the more we look at it, the more we are astonished at its extreme innocence in this way. Candidly speaking, we really think it is considerably more tame and stupid than any thing we ever read; and, so far from being what was to be expected from a well educated young man of twenty-one, we are quite sure, that there are many patriotic misses of fourteen, who could produce something much more spirited and sensible as a holiday exercise. However, to set the worthy author's heart at ease, about the mischief it may be doing in the country, and to console him under the unlucky miscarriage of his praiseworthy endeavours to suppress so seducing and dangerous a publication, we think it right to assure him, that we never happened to hear it mentioned, except as a matter of pleasantry; and that we rather think it never was surmised before, that it had been published with any hope of promoting the interests of rebellion by its tenets or its eloquence. On the contrary, we honestly believe, that the publishers had nothing more in view than to make the author ridiculous, by its extreme silliness, and by the curious contrast between its extravagant republicanism and the other more profitable extravagances in which he has lately indulged. The state of the public mind may thus have been rendered something gayer by its appearance;

but we think we can answer for it, that it has not become a bit more disloyal. Mr. Southey, we are afraid, will not take our word for these consolatory truths; but, if he will ask any intrepid friend he has, we are persuaded he will find that our statement may be perfectly relied on.

The next proposition in the Letter, we confess, startled us not a little. To extenuate the guilt of having written, and wished to publish such a performance as *Wat Tyler* in 1794, the learned author assures us, that, 'at that time, republicanism was confined to a very 'small number of the educated classes.' This, we suppose, is meant for poetry—for, as sober prose, it is altogether incomprehensible. What!—republicanism confined to a very few, and of the educated classes in 1794,—when the land was full of the disciples of Paine and Godwin—when the societies of Friends of the People, and the Corresponding Societies, and the British Convention, and the United Irishmen, had extended their lights into every corner of the land, and when scarcely a village was to be found, that did not send delegates to these associations, and receive from them the refreshment of some apostolic mission or itinerant lecture!—If ever there was a time when republican and revolutionary doctrines were extensively diffused in this country, and had reached at least as low as the whole reading classes it contains, it was in the year 1794, when the French republic was in the meridian of its most insane and triumphant exaltation, and the signal successes of its votaries had given an air of fascination even to their greatest enormities. We really believe there is not an alarmist now in the kingdom, except the poet-laureate himself, who would have the courage to insinuate, that there is more republicanism in England at this moment than there was in 1794. The cause was then new, and triumphant, and terrible—now it is stale, disgraced, and contemptible;—all the reasonings by which it was then so plausibly supported, have since been refuted, not only by better reasonings, but by large, long, and most mortifying experience; and, unless it be the extraordinary fascination of *Wat Tyler*, and the lucubrations of Messrs. Spence and Evans, we are really at a loss to conjecture, by what circumstances it should be supposed to have been again restored to favour and credit.

After this, we have about twenty pages all in a foam with self-praise and impotent anger—presenting a lamentable struggle between extreme soreness and incurable conceit—and exhibiting the humiliating picture of self-adulation, licking with fruitless affection the festering sores of wounded vanity. There, we are told, over and over again, that this pitiful stuff of *Wat Tyler* 'bears no indications 'of an ungenerous spirit, or a malevolent heart,' but of 'feelings 'right in themselves, but wrong only in their direction;'—that it is *false* that the author has ever imputed evil motives to men for holding the doctrines he himself formerly professed;—and that it is also *false* that he has ever written any thing jealous or vindictive. That he has been abused and insulted more than any man ever was, both in prose and rhyme, by Jacobins and Anti-Jacobins, ever since 1796;

and never condescended to answer till now, though 'it will not be supposed that the ability for satire was wanting,'—but because the enmity of such people really did him honour;—and that 'he accepted the hatred of sciolists, coxcombs, and profligates, as a sure proof that he was deserving well of the wise and the good.' We are moreover assured, that if he could only have ceased to detest tyranny, and abhor wicked ambition, he 'might have been sure of the approbation of Mr. Smith, and the whole crew of ultra whigs and anarchists, from Messrs. Brougham and Clodius, to Cobbett, Cethegus, and Co.,'—and by and by he turns round and asks, with the most interesting simplicity, 'Whom have I libelled? whom have I traduced? whom have I slandered?—But these miscreants (the modern advocates of revolution) live by calumny, and are libellers and liars by trade.' Moreover, we are told, that the worst that can be said of him is, 'that while events have been moving on upon the great theatre of human affairs, his intellect has not been stationary; that other people might keep their faces to the east all day, and look for the sun there in the evening; but that, for his part, he has altered his position as the world went round; that there can be no sympathy between him and Mr. Smith, even when they think alike; and that, though Mr. Smith may judge of him by himself, and think that a pretty fair criterion, he, Mr. Southey, 'must protest against being measured by such a standard.' That if Mr. Smith did really call him a *renegade*, he brands him for it on the forehead with the name of *slanderer*, and that the mark will outlast his epitaph. Finally, we are told that the learned author's whole history will be read hereafter;—not only at the beginning of various editions of his works, but in numerous biographical publications, both foreign and domestic;—and that, in that history, among a number of other complimentary and curious things, it will be carefully recorded that, though much abused, he never answered any body but Mr. Smith; and that 'on that occasion he vindicated himself as it became him to do—and treated his calumniator with just and memorable severity.'

This, we think, is a pretty fair account of the Letter, in so far as it is personal and appropriate.—Of some of the general political dogmas that are here repeated, we may say a few words afterwards;—at present we have a little remark or two to make on the matters we have now abstracted.

Mr. Southey complains of having been more attacked and insulted than any man. Did it never occur to him, that there must have been something about him peculiarly calculated to provoke these attacks? and if he had only pondered a little upon their peculiar nature, we think he might have discovered what this was. All these attacks, we rather think, were in the way of ridicule and derision;—at least, we do not recollect any body who has thought it worth while to abuse him in good earnest. The Anti-Jacobins parodied his jacobin lyrics and regicide inscriptions—and the Edinburgh Reviewers made sport with his laureate odes and his habitual affectations. This, we think, is the worst that has befallen him. Now, if a

man has been laughed at for twenty years together, we suspect it will be pretty clear to every body but himself, that there must be something rather laughable about him, and that, in all probability, he would only have made himself more ridiculous by retorting. However, as Mr. Southey says nobody can doubt that he has a talent for satire, we wish heartily that he would produce it. We are quite sure that he will succeed perfectly in making at least one person ridiculous—and that is something. But we are afraid he has not temper enough for a satirist—nor a sufficient familiarity with the language of polite life. Raillery, we would beg leave to hint to him, is something essentially different from railing; and if he were to content himself, as he now does, with calling his opponents scoundrels, liars, profligates, and atheists, we are afraid that nobody would laugh—and nobody smart but his bookseller. But to return to his persecutions.

They began, he says in 1796, and have had no remission ever since. Jacobins and anti-jacobins have treated him with equal injustice; and both sides have united to abuse him. This is particularly hard, no doubt; but when the thing comes to be explained, it really is not quite so unaccountable. These two parties did not attack him at the same time, nor exactly for the same thing;—both laughed indeed at the puling affectation of his style, and the feeble and tragical emphasis of his execrations. But, in other respects, their conduct was natural and fair enough. The anti-jacobins attacked him in 1796, when he was a jacobin—and the jacobins, or those he is pleased to call jacobins, in 1816, when he had become an anti-jacobin, or something still more outrageous. We do not think Mr. Southey has much right to complain of this. The parties acted after their kind—and he seems to glory in the fact, that he was successively the natural prey of both. But the parties, we think, have some little reason to complain of him;—and of the way in which they are both spoken of by this oracular weathercock, who is not contented with abusing them alternately, but, in order to make out that he is exclusively and eternally in the right, thinks fit, at the present day, to abuse them both together. Both persecutions, he says, were unjust and intolerant and calumnious—and both sets of his enemies, as far as we understand, are sciolists and coxcombs and profligates, by whose hostility he is honoured. Now, when a jacobin is converted into an anti-jacobin, and along with his pension takes up his pen, in common course, to abuse his old associates, with the ‘zeal of a proselyte, and the rancour of a renegado,’ it is usual, we believe, for him to acknowledge, that the anti-jacobin abuse, of which he was formerly the victim, was all richly deserved; and even to extol the mildness and forbearance of those old tormentors of his, whom he has now joined, and proposes to outgo. Mr. Southey, however, insists for a dispensation from this law in his own behalf. He is ready enough to denounce and invoke vengeance upon every other man’s jacobinism, ancient or modern—and to practise all anti-jacobin uncharity with regard to it. But, for his own former offences in this way,—

these must be treated with reverence; and he must still be allowed, though in full pay and employment on the other side, to maintain, that it was cruel and unjust to attack him on account of them, and that he was wronged more than man was ever wronged by his loyal opponents;—and deserves infinite credit for his forbearance in not having put forth his satirical vein, and demolished them on the spot. It is impossible, we think, to put any other meaning on his expressions. He says, in distinct terms, that when he wrote *Wat Tyler* and his other republican pieces, ‘a spirit of anti-jacobinism was predominant, as unjust and intolerant as the jacobinism of the present day.’ (p. 7.) And afterwards, he speaks with the same indiscriminating resentment and contempt of ‘the abuse and calumny with which he has been assailed, from one party or the other, anti-jacobins or jacobins, in daily, weekly, monthly, and quarterly publications since the year 1796.’ (p. 43.) And the reference is equally general and comprehensive, when he says, that ‘none of the innumerable attacks that have been made upon his works, has ever called forth a word of reply, though he could (of course) have triumphantly exposed his assailants,’ &c.—‘The unprovoked insults,’ he proceeds, ‘which have been levelled at me, both in prose and in rhyme, never induced me to retaliate. I knew that men might be appreciated from the character of their enemies as well as of their friends; and I accepted the hatred of sciolists, coxcombs, and profligates as one sure proof that I was deserving well of the wise and of the good.’ (p. 11.) Now this, as well as the other passages, is directly applicable to all his works, and the whole of his illustrious career. Indeed, we know no insults in verse, that have been levelled at him, except the noted parodies of Messrs. Canning and Frere; so that it is impossible to doubt that those learned persons, together with all the ministers for 1796, and ‘the dark vizier’ at their head, are here classed under the apt denomination of sciolists, coxcombs, and profligates—as well as Messrs. Smith and Brougham, with lord Grey, sir Samuel Romilly, and the other ultra whigs, as he is pleased to term them, to whom it is more directly applied.

In all the varieties of human littleness and folly, which the nature of our vocation daily unmasks to us, we confess that we have seldom met with any trait of character more amusing than this long-cherished grudge against anti-jacobin persecution, in a person who has been for some years the most intolerant anti-jacobin in existence. But Mr. Southey, we fear, is not of a forgiving nature;—and the crime of having parodied his republican effusions, will be for ever inexpiable in his eyes. Any thing else might have been pardoned to Mr. Canning;—his coquetting with the whigs—his defence of the Catholics—his rebellion against the majesty of lord Castlereagh—and all the other acts of occasional liberality by which his life has been distinguished:—But the crime of *lese-majesté* against the genius of Mr. Southey could admit of no atonement: And accordingly, the witty ridicule of his sentimental slang, which enlivened the earlier numbers of the *Anti-Jacobin*, is still fiercely resented as an unpro-

voked insult—a persecution as unjust and intolerant as that which he now undergoes from the ferocious jacobins of the present day. Now, it really is not very easy to reconcile all this. What would the worthy laureate be at? He admits that Wat Tyler, and his other writings of that day were mischievous—and nobody can doubt that they were intended to produce discontent and disaffection to our monarchical constitution, and our system of opposition to the republican principles of France; yet, at the distance of twenty years, and after he has utterly renounced all these opinions, he complains of the severity with which the anti-jacobins pursued them—though all the severity consisted in a little innocent derision. Would he have been better pleased to have been clapped up in prison for two years, or transported to Botany Bay for fourteen? These, or something more severe than these, are the punishments which he now calls on the government to inflict on all seditious publications; and yet, though he substantially confesses that his own were in the foremost rank of sedition, he still mutters about the insult and oppression he suffered on account of them, although he was let off with merely being laughed at. This, we confess, seems to us not merely self-love, but self-idolatry.

The same amiable weakness, indeed, is visible in some of the other remarks we have cited from this famous epistle. Mr. Southey's intellect has kept pace with the great movements of human affairs. The events of the last twenty-five years have been lost on Mr. Smith; but Mr. Southey has made the right use of them. Other men continue to look for the sun in the east, after evening has come; but Mr. Southey alters his position as the world goes round. This is all admirable: But does it not prove a little too much?—Does it not prove that Mr. Southey, and Mr. Southey alone, was right, both morning, noon, and night; and consequently, that, to be perfect as he is perfect, we ought not only to be all anti-jacobins now, but to have been jacobins in 1796? If he has always turned with the sun, and moved with the great train of affairs, then he must just have been as miraculously right in his opinions, when he was a jacobin as he is now; and the only men, whose principles are to be reprobated, are those who, like Mr. Smith, have had the obstinacy not to change them—and upon whom, therefore, the experience of the last twenty-five years has been utterly thrown away. But it is time to come to more weighty matters.

After thus indignantly repelling Mr. Smith's attack on his consistency and moderation, the learned author prefaces, what may be termed the didactic part of his work, with the following lofty sentence.

‘And now, Sir, learn what are the opinions of the man to whom you have offered this public and notorious wrong;....opinions not derived from any contagion of the times, nor entertained with the unreflecting eagerness of youth, nor adopted in connexion with any party in the state; but gathered patiently, during many years of leisure and retirement, from books, observation, meditation, and intercourse with living minds who will be the light of other ages.’—p. 28, 29.

This is a magnificent introduction, no doubt; but the matter that follows is worthy of it. He has always been a hater of slavery, he assures us, though he has ceased to wish for revolutions, even in countries where great changes are to be desired. This is a very pretty profession, we admit; but when we compare it with the practical strain of the worthy author's political lucubrations, we can scarcely regard it as any thing else than one of those formal tributes to the name of liberty which is not yet thought safe for its enemies, in this country to withhold. The common course with all our abettors of arbitrary power, is to profess the greatest inward veneration for liberty, and to give it a little mouth-honour, now and then, in the abstract—but to discourage all that might tend to promote it, and eagerly and angrily to defend all those institutions by which it is repressed. We have almost as little love for revolutions as the Laureate has; but our dislike to them, and our system of prevention, look, we imagine, rather another way. There is but one radical cause, we take it, for these disastrous movements,—and that is, gross misgovernment on the part of the rulers—either new and direct oppression, or a tenacity of obsolete abuses, that cannot be otherwise overcome. There never was any national revolution accomplished, scarcely any attempted, that may not be referred to this cause, and that might not have been prevented, by timely concessions and reasonable reformatations, on the part of the government. The cabals of discontented individuals, the intrigues of mischief-loving men, may no doubt accelerate such an event, or even excite local and temporary disorders, where there is no real cause of dissatisfaction: But revolutions have always deeper causes; and, originating in the faults of the Government, can only be effectually prevented by the correction of these faults. If history have taught any certain lessons, this is among them. Now, what are the preventives recommended by this Laurelled hater of revolutions—and what is the course of doctrine and of policy which this hatred has prompted him to disclose? In the present crisis of affairs, at home and abroad, he can see nothing of the faults of governments. The people alone are to blame. Bonaparte, indeed, he abuses with as much rancour as if he had once been his Laureate; but not a word is breathed of the enormities of Ferdinand, who has been guilty of more acts of oppression and ingratitude during his short reign, than stained the ermine of the Emperor during all his remorseless career! The *Liberals* are habitually sneered at, and *Constitutionalists* made a name of mockery. He can declaim on the foul abominations of the Romish harlot, with reference to the question of Catholic Emancipation in Ireland—but has not a word to say against the Inquisition in Spain, or the persecution of the Protestants in France; and is quite patriotic and edifying on the lawless invasion of weak states by Bonaparte—though he has not a rebuke in store for the partition of Poland, or the perfidious destruction of Genoa or Ragusa by the act of legitimate sovereigns. While we laud his dread of revolutions, therefore,

which is sufficiently manifested in all his late lucubrations, we must confess we should have been better pleased to have seen some other proofs of his love of liberty than his silence upon all the abuses of existing governments, and his infinite horror at all manifestations of popular discontent or impatience.

But though he has left us rather awkwardly in the dark as to the nature of his care for foreign liberty, the worthy Laureate has been duly communicative on the more important point of our domestic freedom. Here, indeed, the warmth of his zeal has broken out into oracle and inspiration; and, oracular as he is, it cannot be pretended that there is any difficulty in understanding his meaning. This is the sum of his doctrine—‘It is THE PEOPLE at this time ‘who stand in need of Reformation—not the Government.’ And, a little after—‘Government must reform the populace—the people ‘must reform themselves. This is the true reform; and, compared ‘with this, all else is *flocci, nauci, nihili, pili!*’

This, it must be admitted, is equally pithy and elegant. But he condescends to enter farther into details—and favours Mr. Smith, undeserving as he seems to be of such honour, with his own ideas, ‘patiently gathered,’ as we have seen, ‘from many years meditation and study,’ as to the true practical remedies for the sufferings and discontent under which we now labour. These are four in number—First, to put down seditious writings, by the enactment and unsparing execution of new and more severe laws.—Second, to buy land estates for the poor.—Third, to educate all the poor in the Established Religion, and by means of the Established Church.—Fourth and finally, to *increase* the expenditure of Government as much and as fast as possible. These are the recipes for promoting the happiness, and securing the liberty of our people, which are now seriously proposed by Mr. Southey, with such an air of undoubting confidence in their efficacy, as to leave no doubt that they are, as he tells us, the precious result of many years hard study and diligent observation in the bosom of his own family. They really deserve to be a little more nearly considered.

The first response of the oracle is as follows—

‘The Government must better the condition of the populace; and the first thing necessary is to prevent it from being *worsened* (what a nice pretty word!) It must no longer suffer itself to be menaced, its chief magistrate insulted, and its most sacred institutions vilified with impunity. It must curb the seditious press, and keep it curbed. For this purpose, if the laws are not at present effectual, they should be made so; nor will they then avail, unless they are vigilantly executed.’ p. 31, 32.

Now, nobody, of course, can patronize sedition,—or object to its being repressed. But, considering the extreme difficulty of ascertaining what sedition is, and the great hazard of having free and salutary discussion repressed along with it, we confess that we think it better, in general, to leave it to the castigation of the antisedition press—and let it be laughed or reasoned down by the ordinary operation of sound reason, and animated debate. To be sure, when

a piece so extremely seductive and difficult to be answered as Wat Tyler comes in the way, there may be a strong temptation to call in the terrors of the law to the help of our overmastered reason;—and perhaps it was with a view to such extreme cases, that the worthy Laureate made this patriotic suggestion. At the same time, we cannot help conjecturing, from the strain of some of those quarterly effusions which he refuses to disavow, and even from the tenor of the profound speculations with which we are now engaged, that the Laureate's practical notions of curbing might go a good deal further. We there find that he is of opinion that infinite mischief has been done, and is doing, by all those writings which recommend retrenchment, or advocate reform—which lead the people to believe that their sufferings are in any degree to be imputed to the faults of the Government, past or present, or that there is reason for any amendment whatever in the great institutions of our country. All these writings, therefore, we imagine, he would think it necessary to suppress—and would probably consider it as a duty to transport, or imprison for life, all authors and publishers who presumed to circulate such pestilent discourses! We believe no practical statesman is of opinion with Mr. Southey, either that it is necessary to enact new laws for the repression of sedition—or that it would be expedient, or even tolerable, to put the present laws in force, in every case in which there might be room for their operation. But, that a suggestion of this kind should proceed from a man, who has in his time offended so signally against those laws, and has been indebted for his safety to that lenity in their administration, which he alone lifts up his voice to reprove, might excite our wonder and disgust, if extremes did not tend to expose extremes, and absurdity make all errors innoxious. The absurdity, indeed, sets all gravity at defiance, when it is considered that this same person, who thinks the present laws against sedition not half severe enough, continues, up to the present hour, to complain of the slight moral discipline by which his own sedition was chastised, in far more dangerous times—and cries out with one and the same breath, against the persecution he then suffered for his levelling principles, and against the lenity with which those are treated who now approach to the same doctrines.

The scheme of abolishing the poor-rates, by settling all the poor as farmers on certain national domains to be purchased out of our surplus revenue, is professedly borrowed from Mr. Owen, of whose project we may hereafter find a fitter opportunity of speaking. It certainly appears to the greatest possible disadvantage in the hands of the Laureate; and is itself, we are afraid, just as visionary and fantastic as was necessary to secure his patronage and approbation. The real evil is the excess of our population, which this scheme would obviously tend to aggravate; and the result would be, that besides a horde of discontented and unproductive agriculturists, we should have just as many ordinary paupers as before. Suppose the enormous expense of the first establishment got over, and all

the present race of paupers settled comfortably on the national lands—our manufactures, we suppose, are not to be deserted, and all our other undertakings are still to be supplied with hands as formerly: But it is the fluctuating demand for labour, which is produced by the fluctuating profit of those undertakings, which every now and then throws such shoals of unemployed artisans on the parish; and this cause must continue to operate after the national farms are all occupied, just as before. In short, we should just have a new race of compulsory agriculturists, toiling for a bare subsistence, without profit, superadded to the rest of our redundant population; and we should merely pension off the present race of paupers on a permanent and perpetual provision, to make room for another race, for whom no such resource could be provided. This, however, we suspect, is rather beyond the depth of our Laureate—who talks very eloquently of colonizing at home with disbanded soldiers and sailors—and thus lightening the poor-rates, encouraging manufactures, and even ‘providing a permanent source of revenue.’ Very pleasant certainly and feasible!

The laureate’s third *panacea* is the education of the poor; and, with his constitutional horror at half learning, which he repeatedly says is far worse than ignorance, we confess we were rather surprised at his having the courage to recommend it at all. Most certainly, half learning is all that the bulk of the poor can ever expect to obtain; and if we thought, as he does, that it was worse than none, we should be compelled to decide against giving them any education. But then, the worthy poet is not for trusting them with the dangerous arts of reading and writing alone:—By no means;—‘they must also be instructed according to the *established religion*,’ and the scheme of their education is to be ‘so connected with the church, as to form part of the establishment; and thus we shall find it a bulwark to the State, as well as to the Church.’ Now, there really seems to us to be something portentous in this, coming from the pen of a layman who holds as yet but a small ornamental sinecure, not depending on ecclesiastical patronage, and who professes great philanthropy and liberality. The question is, how best to counteract the grievous ignorance, improvidence, and profligacy of the lower orders; and when the answer is—By education; up starts the Poet-Laureate, and puts in the qualification, that they shall get no education unless they conform to the Church of England, and come for it to a school that is part of the church establishment! This, we suppose, would, in point of fact, exclude about two-thirds of the subjects of this realm—and those who are most in need of it; and all this in order that a bulwark may be reared up for the church, and the people attached to their national institutions. From this intolerant and flaming zeal for the Church of England, one would naturally suppose that Mr. Southey had been a dissenter in his youth; and though we know nothing whatever of the matter, he has dropped some hints in the course of this epistle that seem to countenance that supposition: where he

says, for example, that his 'Joan of Arc' received the approbation of all 'the dissenting journals' of the day: and that his fine scheme of emigration to America was much talked of among certain sects of Christians. But whether this desire to exclude all sectaries from the benefits of a national education proceeds from mere hostility to all the objects of his early attachment, or from principles of more comprehensive patriotism and prudence, it is impossible not to be struck with the singular figure it makes among the ways and means by which discontent and vice, as well as poverty and disaffection, are to be eradicated from society. Does the worthy Laureate now hold, that all dissenters are so profligate and seditious by nature, that reading and writing would only make them more dangerous? or does he hope, by this exclusion, to force them gently back within the pale of the church, by refusing them all instruction elsewhere? Whatever his views may be, there is certainly great originality in proposing such a restriction, as a means of attaching the dissenting population to the government of the country.

But the grand secret and glorious discovery of the excellent Laureate remains still to be mentioned. It is, that the present distress of the country proceeds entirely from the extreme parsimony of the government; and that the only catholic remedy is, for it to increase its levies and its expenditure without sparing. We are afraid that this would not be believed upon our report—and therefore we must quote the words of this learned Theban himself, whose opinions have been maturing among the mountains of Cumberland, during, we know not how many years of intense study and deep meditation. 'Never, indeed,' says he, 'was there a more senseless cry than that which is at this time raised for retrenchment in the public expenditure, as a means of alleviating the present distress. Men are out of employ. The evil is, that too little is spent; and, as a remedy, we are exhorted to spend less!' This is dwelt upon with the same complacency for some time; and so perfectly assured and satisfied is he with this brilliant position, that he proceeds to taunt, somewhat severely, the unfortunate speculators who have recommended a reduction of our establishments. There are many mouths, he says, without food, because the hands want work; 'and for this reason, the state quack requires further reduction. *O lepidum caput!* and it is by such heads as this that we are to be reformed!' Nay, there is yet more of the same pattern. 'Instead, therefore, of this senseless cry for retrenchment, which is like prescribing depletion for a patient, whose complaints proceed from inanition; a liberal expenditure should be advised in works of public utility and magnificence. Build, therefore, our monuments,' &c. &c.

Now, we must say, that the utter absurdity of those passages, combined with the undoubting confidence with which they are brought forward, have given us a higher idea than we ever entertained before of Mr. Southey's poetical genius.—Nothing, we conceive, but the true poetic temperament could have given birth to

such conceptions—or blinded the author's eyes to the glaring fallacy of his assumptions : For the whole of this most comfortable doctrine rests upon the ingenious supposition, that government *has the means* of spending without measure or limit—and that its present moderation in that particular arises merely from a sort of stinginess, which will probably be overcome by the warmth and eloquence of his exhortations.—Now, we are very much afraid that this is not exactly the case; and, at all events, it is to be regretted, that the worthy Laureate did not think of inquiring a little into the *cause* of this effect; 'or rather,' as the sage Polonius expresses it, 'of this defect—for this effect defective comes by cause,'—as he might then perhaps have discovered, that the insufficiency of our expenditure was occasioned entirely by the difficulty of raising funds to supply it—and that the remedy which he prescribes, however pleasant and desirable in itself, really could not be conveniently applied, in the present posture of our affairs.

If things, indeed, were otherwise,—if government could raise money to any given amount, by its own creative *fiat*, and without at all burdening or distressing the people, nothing, to be sure, could be easier, or more laudable, than to employ all the idle people in the land at double wages, on works of utility and magnificence,—or of no utility or magnificence at all. On that delectable supposition, there could be no possible objection to giving all the paupers in the country handsome allowances, and employing them in parading up and down the streets with standards and bands of music. Nay, nobody would grudge that the salary even of the Poet-Laureate should be multiplied tenfold, and an additional butt of Sherry rolled into his cellar for every ode he indited. But, alas, when things are but too notoriously in the very opposite situation—when the pressure of taxation has not only swallowed up the *income*, but actually annihilated the *capital* of many of the most industrious individuals in the country—when the household furniture of hundreds of decent families is sold every day in the streets, for arrears of taxes—and the expenditure of every householder is necessarily restricted by absolute inability, within the most penurious limits, it does sound something wild and extravagant, and poetical, and lyrical, to talk of relieving the distresses of the country by a liberal expenditure by the government in works of public magnificence. The money which the government is thus exhorted to spend, it must first squeeze from the pockets of its subjects—and to that extent, at least, *their* expenditure must be diminished. If they had been allowed to keep it—and could with prudence afford to lay it out for their own ends, it would equally be spent as if it was handed over to government for that purpose;—and the only difference would be, that the owners would, in all likelihood, spend it profitably and productively, while the government would throw it away; that the one would use it to maintain productive labour, and make it act as the spring of a long series of prosperous industry—while the other would consume it in the payment of soldiers, taxgather-

ers, and sinecurists, in whose hands it would be productive of nothing. But, if the original owner could *not* afford to spend it in his own business, or for his own enjoyments, still less can he afford to pay it in taxes: And this hopeful project for charming away the poverty of the country, by a liberal expenditure on the part of government, turns out to be nothing else than a device for completing the impoverishment of the industrious part of the community, and cutting off the sources of future wealth and prosperity, in order to enable government to maintain, a little longer, its hosts of stipendiary servants:—And the worthy Laureate, who comes down from the mountains with this precious scheme of finance on his shoulders, cackles, with vast self complacency, at the state quacks who recommend economy; and imagines himself the most profound genius in the world, because he can talk, with physiological solemnity, of depletion and inanition; and compare, in bucolic strains, ‘the wealth which is taken from the people, to vapours which are drawn imperceptibly from the earth, but distributed to it in refreshing dews and fertilizing showers.’ How amazingly pretty!

Of a truth, the laureate shines in political economy—but he had better keep to his Spanish romances.

‘Art. 8.—*Transactions of the Geological Society*. Vol. II. 4to. pp. 558. London.’—These transactions were published in 1814, and certainly merited a much earlier notice than they have received. A third volume, we understand, has been published, that ought to be made known with somewhat more attention to the curiosity of scientific readers. The reviewers give a good and favourable account of the papers contained in it. We much wish this valuable collection on a subject of daily increasing interest were republished here. The paper ‘on the fresh water formations of the Isle of Wight,’ is singularly curious and interesting. If to this paper of Mr. Webster’s, containing an account of the Isle of Wight basin, were added Cuvier’s account of the Paris basin, and some account of the London basin, it would form a moderate sized volume of more interest than almost any scientific work that has appeared for many years.

We are happy to announce that the Rev. Mr. Steinhauer, author of the paper in these transactions, entitled, ‘Notice relative to the Geology of the Coast of Labrador,’ is now settled at the head of the Moravian institution at Bethlehem, in this state.

‘Art. 9.—*Tales of My Landlord*.’—The following account of the literary merit of the author of *Waverly*, meets our entire approbation, except that we can find no marks of toryism in his writings. To us he appears a candid, liberal, impartial writer, both as to political and theological facts and opinions. We are decidedly of opinion that the works of this writer are a grade above the standard of Walter Scott’s talents:

“This, we think, is beyond all question a new coinage from the mint which produced *Waverly*, *Guy Mannering*, and the *Antiquary*: For though it does not bear the legend and superscription of

the master on the face of the pieces, there is no mistaking either the quality of the metal or the execution of the die---and even the private mark may be seen plain enough by those who know how to look for it. It is quite impossible to read ten pages of this work, in short, without feeling that it belongs to the same school with those very remarkable productions; and no one who has any knowledge of nature or of art, will ever doubt that it is an original. The very identity of the leading characters in the whole set of stories, is a stronger proof, perhaps, that those of the last series are not copied from the former, than even the freshness and freedom of the draperies with which they are now invested---or the ease and spirit of the groups into which they are newly combined. No imitator would have ventured so near his originals, and yet come off so entirely clear of them; and we are only the more assured that the old acquaintances we continually recognise in these volumes, are really the persons they pretend to be, and no false mimics, that we recollect so perfectly to have seen them before, or at least to have been familiar with some of their near relations.

“We have often been astonished at the quantity of talent---of invention, observation, and knowledge of character, as well as of spirited and graceful composition, that may be found in those works of fiction in our language, which are generally regarded as among the lower productions of our literature,---upon which no great pains is understood to be bestowed, and which are seldom regarded as the titles of a permanent reputation. If novels, however, are not fated to last as long as epic poems, they are at least a great deal more popular in their season; and, slight as their structure, and imperfect as their finishing may often be thought in comparison, we have no hesitation in saying, that the better specimens of the art are incomparably more entertaining, and considerably more instructive. The great objection to them, indeed, is, that they are too entertaining---and are so pleasant in the reading, as to be apt to produce a disrelish for other kinds of reading, which may be more necessary, and can in no way be made so agreeable. Neither science, nor authentic history, nor political nor professional instruction, can be conveyed in a pleasant tale; and, therefore, all these things are in danger of appearing dull and uninteresting to the votaries of those more seductive studies. Among the most popular of these popular productions that have appeared in our times, we must rank the works to which we have just alluded; and we do not hesitate to say, that they are well entitled to that distinction. They are indeed, in many respects very extraordinary performances---though in nothing more extraordinary than in having remained so long unclaimed. There is no name, we think, in our literature, to which they would not add lustre---and lustre, too, of a very enviable kind; for they not only show great talent, but infinite good sense and good nature,---a more vigorous and wide-reaching intellect than is often displayed in novels, and a more powerful fancy, and a deeper sympathy with various passion, than is often combined with strength of understanding.

"The author, whoever he is, has a truly graphic and creative power in the invention and delineation of characters---which he sketches with an ease, and colours with a brilliancy, and scatters about with a profusion, which reminds us of Shakspeare himself: Yet with all this force and felicity in the representation of living agents, he has the eye of a poet for all the striking aspects of nature; and usually contrives, both in his scenery and in the groups with which it is enlivened, to combine the picturesque with the natural, with a grace that has rarely been attained by artists so copious and rapid. His narrative, in this way, is kept constantly full of life, variety, and colour; and is so interspersed with glowing descriptions, and lively allusions, and flying traits of sagacity and pathos, as not only to keep our attention continually awake, but to afford a pleasing exercise to most of our other faculties. The prevailing tone is very gay and pleasant; but the author's most remarkable, and, perhaps, his most delightful talent, is that of representing kindness of heart in union with lightness of spirits and great simplicity of character, and of blending the expression of warm and generous and exalted affections with scenes and persons that are in themselves both lowly and ludicrous. This gift he shares with his illustrious countryman Burns---as he does many of the other qualities we have mentioned with another living poet,---who is only inferior perhaps in that to which we have alluded. It is very honourable indeed, we think, both to the author, and to the readers among whom he is so extremely popular, that the great interest of his pieces is for the most part a moral interest---that the concern we take in his characters is less on account of their adventures than of their amiableness---and that the great charm of his works is derived from the kindness of heart, the capacity of generous emotions, and the lights of native taste which he ascribes, so lavishly, and at the same time with such an air of truth and familiarity, even to the humblest of his favourites. With all his relish for the ridiculous, accordingly, there is no tone of misanthropy, or even of sarcasm in his representations; but, on the contrary, a great indulgence and relenting towards those who are to be the objects of our disapprobation. There is no keen or cold-blooded satire---no bitterness of heart, or fierceness of resentment in any part of his writings. His love of ridicule is little else than a love of mirth; and savours throughout of the joyous temperament in which it appears to have its origin; while the buoyancy of a raised and poetical imagination lifts him continually above the region of mere jollity and good humour, to which a taste, by no means nice or fastidious, seems constantly in danger of sinking him. He is evidently a person of a very sociable and liberal spirit---with great habits of observation---who has ranged pretty extensively through the varieties of human life and character, and mingled with them all, not only with intelligent familiarity, but with a free and natural sympathy for all the diversity of their tastes, pleasures, and pursuits---one who has kept his heart as well as his eyes open to all that has offered itself to engage them; and learned indulgence for

human faults and follies, not only from finding kindred faults in their most intolerant censors, but also for the sake of the virtues by which they were often redeemed, and the sufferings by which they have still oftener been taught. The temper of his writings, in short, is precisely the reverse of those of our Laureates and Lakers, who, being themselves the most whimsical of mortals, make it a conscience to loathe and detest all with whom they happen to disagree, and labour to promote mutual animosity, and all manner of uncharitableness among mankind, by referring every supposed error of taste, or peculiarity of opinion, to some hateful corruption of the heart and understanding.

“With all the indulgence, however, which we so justly ascribe to him, we are far from complaining of the writer before us for being too neutral and undecided on the great subjects which are most apt to engender excessive zeal and intolerance---and we are almost as far from agreeing with him as to most of these subjects. In politics, it is sufficiently manifest, that he is a decided tory---and, we are afraid, something of a latitudinarian both in morals and religion. He is very apt at least to make a mock of all enthusiasm for liberty or faith, and not only gives a decided preference to the social over the austerer virtues; but seldom expresses any warm or hearty admiration except for those graceful and gentleman-like principles which can generally be acted upon with a gay countenance, and do not imply any great effort of self-denial, or any deep sense of the rights of others, or the helplessness and humility of our common nature. Unless we misconstrue very grossly the indications in these volumes, the author thinks no times so happy as those in which an indulgent monarch awards a reasonable portion of liberty to grateful subjects; who do not call in question his right either to give or to withhold it---in which a dignified and decent hierarchy receives the homage of their submissive and uninquiring flocks---and a gallant nobility redeems the venial immoralities of their gayer hours, by brave and honourable conduct towards each other, and spontaneous kindness to vassals in whom they recognise no independent rights, and not many features of a common nature. It is rather remarkable however, that with propensities thus decidedly aristocratical, the ingenious author has succeeded by far the best in the representation of rustic and homely characters;---and not in the ludicrous or contemptuous representation of them; but by making them at once more natural and more interesting than they had ever been made before in any work of fiction; by showing them not as clowns to be laughed at; or wretches to be pitied and despised; but as human creatures, with as many pleasures, and fewer cares than their superiors, with affections not only as strong, but often as delicate as those whose language is smoother, and with a vein of humour, a force of sagacity, and very frequently an elevation of fancy, as high and as natural as can be met with among more cultivated beings. The great merit of all these delineations, is their admirable truth and fidelity, the whole manner and cast of the characters be-

ing accurately moulded on their condition; and the finer attributes that are ascribed to them, so blended and harmonised with the native rudeness and simplicity of their life and occupations, that they are made interesting and even noble beings, without the least particle of foppery or exaggeration, and delight and amuse us without trespassing at all on the province of pastoral or romance.

“Next to these, we think, he has found his happiest subjects, or at least displayed his greatest powers; in the delineation of the grand and gloomy aspects of nature, and of the dark and fierce passions of the heart. The natural gayety of his temper does not indeed allow him to dwell long on such themes; but the sketches he occasionally introduces, are executed with admirable force and spirit—and give a strong impression, both of the vigour of his imagination, and the variety of his talent. It is only in the third rank that we would place his pictures of chivalry and chivalrous character; his traits of gallantry, nobleness and honour; and that bewitching assemblage of gay and gentle manners, with generosity, candour and courage, which has long been familiar enough to readers and writers of novels, but has never before been represented with such an air of truth and so much ease and happiness of execution.

“Among his faults and failures, we must give the first place to his descriptions of virtuous young ladies—and his representations of the ordinary business of courtship and conversation in polished life. We admit that those things, as they are commonly conducted, are apt to be a little insipid to a mere critical spectator;—and that while they consequently require more heightening than strange adventures or grotesque persons, they admit less of exaggeration or ambitious ornament: Yet we cannot think it necessary that they should be altogether so lame and mawkish as we generally find them in the hands of this spirited writer,—whose powers really seem to require some stronger stimulus to bring them into action, than can be supplied by the flat realities of a peaceful and ordinary existence. His love of the ludicrous, it must also be observed, often betrays him into forced and vulgar exaggerations, and into the repetition of common and paltry stories; though it is but fair to add, that he does not detain us long with them, and makes amends by the copiousness of his assortment, for the indifferent quality of some of the specimens. It is another consequence of this extreme abundance in which he revels and riots, and of the fertility of the imagination from which it is supplied, that he is at all times a little apt to overdo even those things which he does best. His most striking and highly coloured characters appear rather too often, and go on rather too long. It is astonishing, indeed, with what spirit they are supported, and how fresh and animated they are to the very last; but still there is something too much of them: and they would be more waited for and welcomed, if they were not quite so lavish of their presence. It was reserved for Shakespeare, alone, to leave all his characters as new and un-

worn as he found them, and to carry Falstaff through the business of three several plays, and leave us as greedy of his sayings as at the moment of his first introduction. It is no light praise to the author before us, that he has sometimes reminded us of this, as well as other inimitable excellences in that most gifted of all inventors.

"To complete this hasty and unpremeditated sketch of his general characteristics, we must add, that he is above all things national and Scottish, and never seems to feel the powers of a giant, except when he touches his native soil. His countrymen alone, therefore, can have a full sense of his merits, or a perfect relish of his excellences; and those only, indeed, of them, who have mingled, as he has done, pretty freely with the lower orders, and made themselves familiar not only with their language, but with the habits and traits of character, of which it then only becomes expressive. It is one thing to understand the meaning of words, as they are explained by other words in a glossary or dictionary, and another to know their value, as expressive of certain feelings and humours in the speakers to whom they are native, and as signs both of temper and condition among those who are familiar with their import."

ART. II.—*Analysis of the Journal of Science and the Arts of the Royal Institute. Edited by Mr. Brande. No. VI.*

'Art. 1.—*An Account of the Life and Writings of Baron Guyton de Morveau, F.R.S. Member of the Institute of France, &c. &c.—By A. B. Granville, M.D. F.L.S. M.R.C.S., &c. Foreign Secretary of the Geological Society.*'—Louis Bernard Guyton de Morveau was born at Dijon, January 4, 1737; he was educated for the bar, and purchased the place of advocate general, in the parliament of Dijon, at the age of twenty-four, for forty thousand francs; for under the old regime all law offices were put up to sale. In 1764 he was admitted honorary member of the academy of sciences at Dijon. Soon after this he began to pay attention to chemistry, in which he lectured with great success. His *Elements of Chemistry*, published about 1778, was decidedly the best work on the subject which the public had yet seen. His several memoirs on chemical subjects acquired him great and deserved reputation, and he was appointed to draw up the chemical articles in the *Encyclopedie Methodique*, in 1780. In 1787 he read, at the academy of sciences, his plan of a new chemical nomenclature. Owing to his influence and exertions, Dijon became the place whence the scientific news of Europe was disseminated through France. In 1783, he published *Reports of his Pleadings at the Bar*. During all this time he was continually enriching chemical science with memoirs and experiments of great importance, published in the various scientific journals of that nation. On the 25th of April, 1784, he ascended, with president Virly, in a balloon from Dijon; and again on the 12th of June following. He was elected into the first constituent assembly in France, and he then quitted his chemical lectures, having given fifteen

courses, gratuitously, to his fellow citizens of Dijon. He was for some time president of that assembly. On the 16th of January, 1793, he voted with the republican party, which the legitimates never forgave; and had he not died when he did, the Bourbon family would have banished, if not punished him more severely. In 1796 he was elected one of the council of five hundred. In 1799 he was chosen one of the directors of the mint, and director of the polytechnic school. In 1806 he received the cross of the legion of honour. He died on the 21st of December, 1815, having done as much for the promotion of chemical knowledge as any man of his day.

'Art. 2.—*An Inquiry into the Varieties of Muscular Motion, and their Connexion with Peculiarity of Texture in the Moving Organ.* By J. R. Park, M.B., &c.'—This is a physiological dissertation on muscular motion, not capable of abridgment. We noticed among the opinions contained in it, not commonly received, 1st, the spontaneous relaxation of involuntary organs. 2d, The denial of any muscle or any thing similar to muscular contraction accompanying the arteries and veins; an opinion entertained by Bichat and Berzelius, the first supporting it from physiological, the second from chemical considerations. 3d, The sphincter-form of the mouths of the exsorbents. These opinions, however, are deduced from reasoning, not from actual, eye-sight observation.

'Art. 3.—*On the Genus *Pancreatium*.*—By John Bellenden Ker, Esq.'—A botanical paper that does not admit of abridgment.

'Art. 4.—*Description of the Vallies of Cucuta in South America.*—By M. Palacio Faxar.'—An entertaining account of the portion of country described, but without science, or indeed interest.

'Art. 5.—*On a new Method of Constructing Chimnies.*'—This new method of constructing chimnies and fire places, we consider as so important to those who use steam engines, to brewers, distillers, dyers, and others, who employ great fires, that we are induced to copy it, with the plate. A mode of constructing a fire place which shall reduce the heat of the chimney from 440 to 250 of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and which, with equal fuel, shall convert into steam, under the same pressure, 7lb. 12oz. of water, instead of 5lb. 8oz., is such an improvement, that every means ought to be taken to make it generally known:

No contrivances are of more importance than those which may be classed under the head of Furnaces; without them, we should enjoy few of the necessities and none of the comforts or luxuries of life; they comprise all kinds of fires, from those employed for mere culinary purposes, to those requisite for smelting metals, working steam engines, &c. As to the last, though great have been the improvements in the engines themselves, the furnaces remain nearly in the same state as Mr. Watt found them; any practical improvement in their construction, must therefore be worthy of attention.

"The best test of the construction of a steam engine furnace, will be in the greatest quantity of water evaporated under a given pressure with the least quantity of fuel; from the experiments of Mr. Dalton, Count Rumford, Dr. Black, and Mr. Watt, it appears that the heat generated in the combustion of 1 lb. of coal should be sufficient to reduce from 6 to 8 lbs. of boiling hot water to steam, and if more than this weight is used, there is a proportionate quantity of heat lost.

"To ascertain therefore, experimentally, the effect of the construction of the chimnies now under consideration, a steam engine boiler, of the form most generally used, was seated and worked in the usual manner; there was a very quick consumption of the fuel; the heat of the chimney averaged 440 of Fehrenheit; and 1 lb. of Hartley's Newcastle coal, reduced 5lb. 8oz. of boiling hot water to steam, under a pressure of 4 inches of mercury; and it is here necessary to state, that the heat of the flues seldom boiled away in cooling more than two gallons of water for every bushel of coals used in the day. But when the same boiler was seated, according to the annexed drawing and description, for which a patent has been obtained, the heat of the chimney was reduced to 250°, and 1lb. of the same coal reduced 7lb. 12oz. of boiling hot water to steam, under a pressure of four inches of mercury; thus approximating to the greatest possible quantity that can be practically effected, and making the saving in fuel of 30 per cent. over the common methods; besides which, the heat that was retained in the flues evaporated from 6 to 10 gallons of water, in cooling, for each bushel of coals that had been used.

"In the common method, the boiler soon cooled; but in the patent way, it retained heat much longer. In the common way, the usual thick dense smoke issued from the top of the chimney: in the patent way, the smoke was three parts consumed, and the little that was discharged rendered of a light yellow brown. If these are advantages worthy of attention, an inspection of the plan will show them to be the natural consequences of the improved arrangement.

"First. By not allowing the cold air to pass between the fire and the bottom of the boiler, when the furnace door is open, the heat of the fire is not driven down between the bars, so as to melt them, nor the boiler cooled, thus making a considerable saving in wear and tear, as nothing is more destructive than sudden changes of temperature, and the action of air and moisture, on the hot surfaces of metallic bodies; for the draft of cold air that usually passes between the fire and the boiler, on opening the furnace door, is far more powerful than that which ever enters the ash-pit.

"Secondly. As the intensity of the heat, is in proportion to the consumption of oxygen gas, so that is generally increased when the wind blows favourably to the ash-pit, and is as much diminished when the reverse happens; but by supplying the furnace with air from the shaft Z, all the effects that naturally arise from the variations of the velocities and courses of the wind, and its action

FIG. 2.

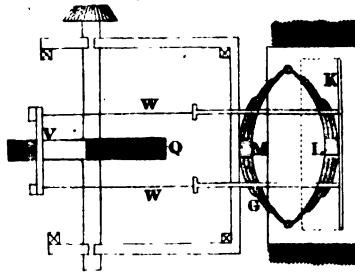


FIG. 3.

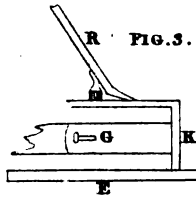


FIG. 4.

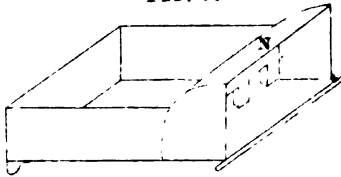
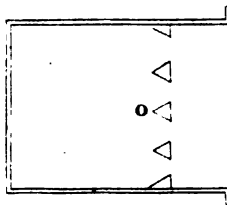


FIG. 5.



2

on the fire and chimney are completely counteracted. In all small fires, and in many large furnaces, these united effects are found very considerable. The shaft, chimney, flue, or tunnel for the regular passage of permanently elastic bodies, should increase in dimensions from the orifice at which it is either to be received or discharged; thus, if A was contracted at the top, the elastic smoke would be confined in the body of the chimney, and operate against the draft of the fire at B, and if Z was no larger than the aperture X, an adequate supply of air would not be received.

“Thirdly. By causing the smoke to descend until it comes again into contact with the heat of the fire, through the small aperture at the bottom of D, two objects are attained. One, that of igniting and consuming the inflammable vapours distilled from the coal, and not burnt in the furnace. The other by retaining in the furnace all the heat above the aperture B.

“Fourthly. This construction of the chimnies alone will scarcely be sufficient in furnaces consuming a chaldron of coals per day, without attention is paid to the constantly supplying it, for which the contrivance shown in the plate becomes necessary, and can be applied to furnaces where the descending flue could not, as in salt pans and all shallow boilers.

“From particular attention paid to the various trials of which the above is the result, it was found that no advantage was gained or lost in the evaporation of water under the various changes of the barometer, for when standing high, it increased the briskness of the fire as much as it pressed on the water; and when low, the contrary.

“There was also more water constantly evaporated when under a pressure of four or six inches of mercury, than when in the open air, arising from the increased heat being above the increased pressure; and, Lastly, That when the furnace and boiler had attained the maximum of temperature, no proportionate effect was produced by even doubling the quantity of fuel.

Reference to the Plate.

Fig. 1. Section and elevation of the chimnies, and the method of supplying the fire with fuel.

Fig. 2. Plan of the apparatus.

Fig. 3. Section of a part of a larger scale.

Fig. 4. Perspective of coal box. Fig. 5. Plan of ditto.

A. The smoke discharging chimney.

B. The only aperture into it.

C. The descending flue.

D. The back of the fire, generally of Welsh lumps, but this may be made a part of the boiler, and taken away at pleasure; at the bottom of this back is left a small aperture, not two inches deep, and the width of the grate through which a strong draft, but not the smoke, passes, being closed with the red embers.

E. A flat bed plate the width of the fire bars and placed above.

F. The door as usual for making and raking the fire.

G. A spring made of steel or wood attached to a stationary block M, at one part, and fastened to K at L, in the other.

H. The brick or frame work to support E.

K. A sliding rail with shelf at top, the length of which, if one or more, should be equal to the width of the fire bars.

N. The perforated end of the coal box.

O. The starlings to prevent the holes being choked up.

P. The coal box, the width equal to K, one end resting on

Q. A notched snail wheel; this wheel may be placed above the coal box, or in any other more convenient part; so, that by means of levers and chains, or other connections, similar motions be given to the box and springs.

R. A filling up piece of cast iron, with a branch or shoe at bottom, to take the small coals off the shelf K.

S to T. Enclosures on all sides, leaving only sufficient space for the apparatus to work, the whole of which being in constant motion, and screened from the fire, by the constantly falling crude fuel, is not subject to being burnt away.

U. A double lever working on a pivot, having

V. A bearing piece working on the wheel Q.

W. The connecting rods or chains from the lever U to the sliding shelf K.

Z. An air shaft, for receiving a supply of external air, from every quarter from which the wind may blow.

Y. Any convenient height at which the same may be terminated above the roof or adjacent buildings.

I. The connecting branch carried to X.

X. Apertures for supplying the fire with air, and regulated by valves or dampers, the size of which, when open, are equal to B. Nothing is found more effectual to damp the fire than preventing a supply of air.

5. Brick work placed in the mouth of the flue to preserve the boiler and inflame the smoke.

22. An aperture for the admission of cold air if requisite for the final combustion of the smoke.

23. A door for taking out the ashes or cinders from the bottom of A.

24. The damper to regulate the aperture B; this and X should be regulated at the same time to the same size.

"From an inspection of the above application to the boiler of a steam engine, it will be seen, that the smoke comes to, and rises at the front, returns along the sides, and descends behind, and that a current of cold air cannot pass between the fire and the boiler, even if the door should be left open, while the brick-work at J, becomes of such a heat, as to inflame the smoke, and which is finally consumed as it descends and mixes with the heat of the fire coming from the aperture at the bottom of D, consequently, the heat is retained in the fire and furnace above the aperture B.

"The regular and constant supply of the fuel, will be as follows: On the wheel Q being moved round by hand, engine, or otherways, the end of P becomes elevated, until at the next notch, it suddenly falls, and throws a *small* quantity of fuel upon the top of the shelf K, the wheel continuing to move round, forces the lever U back, and with it, the sliding rail and shelf K, which compresses the spring G, and the coals or fuel falls upon the bed plate E, which soon becomes heated from the construction of the furnace; and when the notch of the wheel arrives at V, the springs are suddenly greased, and the fuel is thrown upon the fire in a flaming state, and that *without ever opening the door*, so that by varying the velocity of the motion, and the power of the springs, any quantity of coals may be equally distributed over the largest fire, the smoke thus entirely consumed, and a considerable saving of fuel effected; while the fire may be urged to any extent by the operation of the air valves at X. Dr. Black, in his lectures on fossil coal, has fully pointed out the necessity of better contrived furnaces, and of supplying them more constantly, but with less fuel at once, to whose able remarks, I am indebted for inventing the machine before described.

"The construction of this furnace is equally applicable to all kinds of large fires and furnaces, for whatever purposes they may be intended, as for steam engines, breweries, distilleries, rectifiers, soap boilers, tallow melters, sugar bakers, salt refiners, dye houses, glass houses, potteries, air furnaces, and all others, which consume much fuel: and the construction of the chimnies alone, are equally applicable to smaller fires, as bakers' ovens, japanners' stoves, coakels, air and hot house stoves, and the grates of private and public buildings.

"The last application of this invention having been fully tried, and highly approved, by all who have entered into the merits of it, and as it forms a very leading feature in our domestic health and comfort, it may possibly be worthy of a separate paper, particularly when it is stated, that the fire grates and chimnies being so altered, the largest room can be warmed from 55 to 80 degrees, *without smoke, dust, or coal drafts*, by the radiant heat of an open fire, and with a considerable saving in fuel.

I remain, Sir,
your very obliged servant,

JOS. GREGSON."

Charles-street, Grosvenor-square,
May 28, 1817.

'Art. 6.—*An Account of some Experiments on the Escape of Gases through Capillary Tubes.*—By Mr. Faraday, Assistant in the Laboratory of the Royal Institution.'—These experiments are as yet imperfect: so far as they are detailed, they tend to show that the mobility of gases decrease as their specific gravities increase, when exposed to a high pressure. But it does not appear that the same law obtains at all pressures.

'Art. 7.—*Note respecting Elimination.*—By Charles Babbage, Esq., A.M. F.R.S.'—This does not admit of abbreviation.

'Art. 8.—*Sketch of an Introductory Lecture to a Course of mineralogical and analytical Chemistry, delivered in the Royal Institution of Great Britain.*—By W. T. Brande, Sec. R.S., Prof. Chem. R.I., &c.'—This appears to be Mr. Brande's introductory lecture to his course of mineralogy. What that course is, we cannot know here; but if we are to judge of it from his *Outlines of Geology*, lately published, and from the meagre face set before us, in the present introductory discourse, we shall not be able to speak of it in very high terms. We mean in our next number to give a review of Mr. Brande's late treatise on the subject.

'Art. 9.—*On the Cause of the Diminution of the Temperature of the Sea on approaching Land, or in passing over Banks in the Ocean.*—By Sir H. Davy.'—Somewhere about the year 1779, colonel Jonathan Williams, lately deceased, discovered that the temperature of the sea varied greatly according to its depth, and that it was colder in shallow than in deep water. The experiments on which this opinion was founded, were published by colonel, then Mr. Williams, in a small tract entitled *Thermometrical Navigation*, 1779. Nothing appears to have been done on the subject since that time, unless perhaps it may be mentioned; that the present judge Cooper, and Mr. Joseph Priestley, instituted a series of similar experiments in a voyage from Liverpool to Philadelphia, in the year 1793, whose notes, daily registered, may be found deposited in the library of the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia. The cause was ascribed to the earth being a much better conductor of heat than water, and of course the temperature of the water would be lower within the reach of the earth's action in this respect.

Baron Humboldt and Mr. Davy, brother to sir Humphrey Davy, seem to have noticed this general law, which sir Humphrey Davy in this paper attempts to explain, by the descent of the cooled strata of water. The mode of explanation is not given very clearly in the paper before us, nor does it seem to possess any superiority over the common cause assigned.

Sir H. Davy says that ice can never form at the bottom of the ocean, when the temperature of the water is above 40°, and that, as count Rumford has shown, ice always forms first at the surface. Now this is directly contrary to the common experience of the watermen who ply on the Thames, and who can feel ice with their poles at the bottom, when none can be observed on the top of the water. The common reason assigned for the phenomenon in question appears, to us, unshaken by any thing advanced in this obscure paper of sir H. Davy's.

'Art. 10.—*New Neapolitan Botanical Works.*'

'Art. 11.—*Proceedings of the Royal Society of London.*'—This paper gives a brief account of a new thermometer, constructed by the Rev. Mr. Wollaston, for measuring the height of mountains; an

account of an electrical increase: a paper by sir Ev. Home, on the passage of the ovum from the ovarium into the uterus: a further account of the colchicum autumnale, or meadow saffron, as a cure for the gout, wherein its violent action is ascribed to some acrid matter that spontaneously deposits from the vinous solution: a paper by Mr. Knight, on the expansion and contraction of timber trees: a paper on chronic lameness in horses: a paper by sir H. Davy, on the temperature of the ocean, already noticed.

'Art. 12.---*Proceedings of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.*'---An account of a paper by Mr. Campbell, on the Theory of Vision: by Mr. Murray, containing an improvement on Mr. Brooke's blow pipe, so as to prevent explosion; not a word of Mr. Hare or Mr. Cloud. A paper by Dr. Brewster, on some new properties of light and crystallised bodies. On the Stromnessite (a compound of sulphat of baryta, and carbonat of strontia) by Dr. Trail, of Liverpool. An improvement on the new blow pipe, by Dr. Hope. A mode of stopping bottles, by Dr. Dewar, by the well known method of water locking the cover of the bottle, either by water, or oil, or mercury. On the tides in the river Dee, where the salt water insinuates itself under the fresh water, which, however, is not the case in the Thames. A paper on the Agamemnon of Eschylus.

'Art. 13.---*Miscellanea.*'---On the iodic, and muriatic acids: on Cheltenham waters: on building materials: annales maritimes et coloniales. Notice of Mr. Cockerell's tour, and return from Greece. Description of a lactometer, to ascertain the quantity of cream afforded by different modes of feeding. On cleaning chimnies.

'Art. 14.---*Analytical Review of the Scientific Journals published on the Continent.*'---Observations on thunder storms, by Volta: a circular table of chemical equivalents: on the prehnite of Tuscany, by professor Brocchi: a description of two barometers, by the deceased Landriani: on the vibration of elastic fibre: letter from Van Mons to Brugnatelli, on phosphoric æther; on the metallization of the earths (which we doubt) by marquis Ridolphi: on the medical virtues of chlorine, by professor Brugnatelli; particularly in hydrophobia, to which we ascribe no credit: experiments on transplantation, by Carradin, who advises never to prune the roots, to supply them with water, and keep them for some time from the light of the sun: observations on volatile bodies, so called, by Hermstaed: on the alps of the Cadore: on the efficacy of supertartrat of potash in the scald head, given internally: on the mineralogy of Sicily: on the diamond, by Dr. Bossi: on Wolfe's apparatus, by Landriani; we are promised a translation of this paper, which will enable us to compare it with Mr. W. Hembell's method: on the cure of aneurism: on opium: new books in Italy.

On the magnetic property of the violet ray, by Ridolphi: on vegetation in North Holland: distribution of the animal kingdom, by Cuvier; a translation promised: on the medical treatment of unwholesome trades, by Dr. Gosse: on some phenomena of floating

bodies, by M. Lepot: an astronomical paper by Piozzi: on the volume and tension of steam in pure and mixed gases: on vegetation in Holland: on the naptha of Amiano, by Theod. Saussure; it contains carbon 87.6, hydrog. 12.78, while olefant gas contains of carbon 85.03, hydrog. 14.97: a letter on an aurora borealis: observations on the comet of 1811, by M. Schroeter: on the way in which light is emitted so as to produce sensations of colour, by B. Prevost: on the specific gravity of different elastic fluids, deduced from stoæchiometric calculations.

TABLE

Of the specific gravities of elastic fluids drawn up from stoæchiometric calculations.

	New Nomenclature by Thenard.	Atmos. air = 1.000	Hy. gas = 1	Ox. gas 1.000	Ordinary Nomen- clature.
1	Hydrogen gas -	0.0694	1	0.0625	
2	Proto carburetted hydrogen gas }	0.5555	8	0.5000	Carburet. hyd. gas.
3	Azotated hydrog. gas }	0.5901	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	0.5312	Ammon. gas.
4	Vapour of the pro- toxide of hydrog. }	0.6250	9	0.5625	Watery vapour.
5	Vapour of hydrocy- anic acid }	0.9374	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	0.8437	
6	Gazeous protoxide of carbon }	0.9722	14	0.8750	Gaseous oxide of Carbo.
7	Percarburetted hy- drogen gas }	0.9722	14	0.8750	Olefant gas.
8	Azote . -	0.9722	14	0.8750	
9	Atmospheric air	1.000	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	0.900	
10	Gazeous deutoxide of azote }	1.041	15	0.937	Nitrous gas.
11	Oxygene gas	1.111	16	1.000	
12	Hydrosulphuric a- cid gas }	1.150	17	1.062	Hydro-thionic gas.
13	Hydrochloric acid gas	1.274	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.156	Muriatic gas.
14	Carbonic acid gas	1.527	22	1.375	
15	Gazeous protoxide of azote }	1.527	22	1.375	Gaseous oxide of azote.
16	Alcoholic vapour	1.597	23	1.437	
17	Vapour of cyanogene	1.806	26	1.625	
18	Chlorocyanic acid vapour }	2.153	31	1.937	
19	Sulphurous acid gas	2.222	32	2.000	
20	Chlorine	2.500	38	2.250	Oxymuriatic acid gas.
21	Æthereal vapour	2.569	37	2.312	
22	Nitrous acid vapour	2.638	38	2.375	
23	Percarburet of sul- phur }	2.638	38	2.375	Vap. of Sulf. of Car.
24	Carbohydro-chloric gas }	3.473	50	3.125	Phosgene gas.

On the gas lights of London: on agriculture, by M. Peschier: on the oil of grain, by Schrader: roses, by J. Redoué; this is a companion to the liliaceous tribe described by this admirable botanist: on the Rumford soup shops, by De Roches: biographical notice of professor Odier.

‘ Art. 15.---*Meteorological Diary.*’

ART. III---1. *Conspiracy of Arnold and Sir Henry Clinton against the United States and against general Washington.* By M. Barbe de Marbois. Translated from the French and inserted in the second volume of the *American Register*, pp. 63.

2. *Vindication of the Captors of Major Andre.* New-York, published by Kirk & Mercein, 1817. pp. 99.

THE history of our Revolutionary contest were it all a fiction might form the plan and outline of a most noble epic poem. It abounds in fine examples of the moral sublime, in traits of heroic self devotion, in strongly marked diversity of character and extreme vicissitudes of fortune, as wonderful and interesting as the most ardent admirer of romance could desire.

We are yet perhaps too near in point of time to the season of those events to feel sensibly the truth of this observation. The play of imagination is restrained by the closeness of the view and the swell of sentiment is repressed by the accuracy of our acquaintance with the least interesting realities. The great men of antiquity are known to us only in their days of glory. We take leave of the heroes of the Iliad while they still glitter in the panoply of war with all their noble qualities fresh and undiminished, the Greeks flushed with victory, and the Trojans celebrating the funeral rites of Hector; our last do not therefore sully our earlier impressions; we do not follow them into retirement, see the splendid shield exchanged for the herdsman's goad, and the youthful warrior dwindle in age to the feeble rustic. But the Diomedes and Sarpedons of our history remain within our view until the streams of dotage flow from their eyes and the weakness of second childhood succeeds to the firmness of early manhood. Posterity will see better because they will not see so much, and will wonder at the coldness and indifference with which we regard the Revolution independent of its consequences.

Nor were incidents wanting suitable to form beautiful and affecting episodes, among which, perhaps, the story of Arnold's treason and major Andre's death has excited the strongest and most general feeling of interest. The unhappy fate of Andre deplored alike by friends and enemies has been the cause of many a tear and the theme of many a song, and the incorruptible integrity of his captors, as a characteristic of the yeomanry of the country has irresistible claims upon our frequent and fond recollection; claims which will we trust acquire new force by the ultimate effect of the late attack upon them which a highly respectable gentleman in Congress unfortunately thought it his duty to make.

We are therefore under great obligations to the learned and accomplished editor of the *American Register* for his excellent

translation of the work of M. de Marbois which is not less remarkable for the elegance of its composition and the value of the information it contains, than for the interesting nature of its subject. M. de Marbois resided in this country as Secretary of the French Legation during the occurrence of the circumstances which he narrates; 'a witness' he says 'of these events, I avail myself of the leisure which I enjoy to report them to the world.' Nor were his opportunities only those of a mere resident, his attachment to this country and its institutions made him an attentive spectator, while his official station and his intimacy with the most distinguished Americans supplied the amplest means of acquiring an accurate and extensive acquaintance with the history of the times.

A book written by such a man, on such a subject, comes to us with every claim upon our attention, and the perusal, while it excites our admiration for the author's abilities, inspires at the same time the most affectionate gratitude towards him for his liberal, kind, and even partial feelings towards our country, and for the new light which he sheds upon our history; and confirms by the corroboration of his testimony our deep felt veneration for the character of Washington.

'The sound judgment of Washington,' he says, 'his steadiness and ability had long since elevated him above all his rivals and far beyond the reach of envy. His enemies still laboured however to fasten upon him, as *a general*, the reproach of mediocrity. It is true that the military career of this great man is not marked by any of those achievements which seem prodigious, and of which the splendour dazzles and astonishes the universe, but *sublime virtues unsullied with the least stain are a species of prodigy*. His conduct throughout the whole course of the war invariably attracted and deserved the veneration and confidence of his fellow-citizens. The good of his country was the sole end of his exertions, never personal glory. In war and in peace, Washington is in my eye, the most perfect model that can be offered to those who would devote themselves to the service of their country and assert the cause of liberty.'

M. Marbois has prefixed to his work a 'Preliminary discourse on the United States' in which he draws a picture of us that, notwithstanding a few misapprehensions into which the distance of his present view has led him, we may be glad to see presented to the examination of Europe. But this is of inferior value and interest to the narrative which he regularly brings down from the earliest achievements of Arnold to the death of Andre, in a manner so lucid, animated and eloquent as has we believe, in this species of writing, never been surpassed. We shall hope to see it printed in a shape more calculated for extensive circulation; it would of itself form a small volume which might with advantage be placed in the hands of every one of the rising generation, and notwithstanding the well earned celebrity of the *American Register*, and the ability with which that Journal is conducted, the expensive size of the volume will be an impediment in the way of such general circu-

lation as we should desire to see given to this exquisite historical morceau.

The work of M. de Marbois possesses an additional degree of interest at this time, because of the light which it throws upon the question lately raised as to the real motives which actuated the captors of Major Andre.

We acknowledge ourselves to be among those who have been anxiously ready to be convinced that our long established and recently disturbed opinion of the magnanimity of Paulding, Williams, and Vanwart, was founded on a just and correct appreciation of their conduct. We felt our national pride wounded by the statement of Col. Tallmadge, and therefore rejoice to find in the work of M. de Marbois, taken in connexion with the '*Vindication of the Captors of Major Andre*,' a complete and satisfactory refutation, as we conceive, of the charges so publicly brought against them in Congress. We believe it is universally regretted that the honourable member happened to find himself in a situation which called for a disclosure of his sentiments; those even who were convinced of the correctness of his opinion admitted the conviction with reluctance, and there were not a few that were so much exasperated as to fall into a very unreasonable suspicion against the candour and generosity of Col. Tallmadge himself. His high character and long sustained eminence however place him above the effect of all such unfavourable conjectures, though nothing can exempt him from the liability to err, which he shares with all mankind. And we trust a very slight consideration of the circumstances will suffice to show that Col. Tallmadge must have been in this instance entirely mistaken.

It has been said that the thanks of general Washington, and the pension granted by congress to Paulding, Williams, and Vanwart, were intended merely as strokes of policy, without regard to the abstract justice of their claims, and meant to encourage such conduct, from whatever motive proceeding; and therefore that we should draw no inference from thence of the actual estimation in which the exploit was held at the time, by those who had opportunities to understand it. And we know that national policy has sometimes been thought to require the concealment or disguise of truth. But surely such occasions have been very few in the history of our country, above all others; and there is no nation whose institutions render the truth of its annals so easy of detection, and so incapable of concealment. Washington, and the congress, might possibly have thought it expedient, for political purposes, to have affected an admiration for the conduct of Andre's captors, which they did not feel; though we cannot, in this instance, perceive a motive for any such simulation; but the whole army having the same opportunities, must have had the same information which Washington and the congress possessed; and no reasons of policy could have induced them to acquiesce so universally, as it is well known they did, in the sentiment expressed by congress. And even if the pride of country

was so general, and so potent, as to seal all lips, and restrain all pens from uttering the truth; if this had been the case with all the Americans who were witnesses of the facts, yet how can we set aside the testimony of M. de Marbois, a foreigner, who writes for European readers, and never avoids speaking freely in censure of whatever among us he considers blameable; who, impartial and seeking only for truth, unbiassed and faithful in his narrative, could have no inducement for disguising or glossing the simple truth of history? His opportunities of knowing were undoubtedly sufficient to entitle him to credit, his curiosity was awake, and his belief must have been formed upon that of the best informed, and most respectable among our countrymen. Whatever he states, therefore, as an undoubted and indisputable fact, it is reasonable to receive as the prevailing opinion, uncontroverted at the time.

If this be conceded (and we can imagine no possible objection to the inference) it is worthy of remark how confidently and unhesitatingly M. de Marbois ascribes the best motives to Paulding, Williams, and Vanwart:

'He,' (Andre), 'had proceeded four leagues onward, with the same good fortune; he could see the Hudson once more, and was about entering Tarrytown, the border village, when a man, armed with a gun, sprung suddenly from the thicket, and seizing the reins of his bridle, exclaimed, "Where are you bound?" At the same instant two others ran up, *who formed, with the first, part of the patrol of volunteer militia that guarded the lines,*' &c.

'He offered them gold, his horse, and promised them large rewards, and permanent provision, from the English government, if they would let him escape. These young men, *whom such offers did but animate the more in their duty,* replied, that they wanted nothing.'

Again, in the conclusion, he says:

'Doubtless the highest honours should, by universal consent, be awarded to those citizens who have been fortunate enough to preserve their country from a great calamity. It is of such distinctions that men of an elevated character are most ambitious of proving themselves worthy. But there is yet more merit and virtue in doing well without ambition or the hope of reward. These three young men had not thought of blazoning an action, in which they had but performed their duty. They learned with surprise that Washington had caused search to be made for them,' &c.

'The names of John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Vanwart, will be celebrated and cherished in all after ages.'

And in the preliminary discourse: 'The treachery of Arnold was attended with more remarkable circumstances. He concerted a plot with the enemies of his country, to replace it under their dominion, and to deliver general Washington into their hands. The republic was saved *by the virtue of three young soldiers.*'

The opinion of M. de Marbois, then, which must have been the general opinion sincerely entertained by those who knew the best,

is extremely favourable to their disinterestedness; but colonel Tallmadge believes they were not disinterested, and deserved no thanks nor praises for the services they performed; and he made known the foundation of his belief: it was the declaration of the gallant, high-minded Andre himself. The authority is, at first view, imposing. Andre was an honourable man, and a dying man: and therefore his assertions were doubly entitled to credit. But, on the other hand, it must be recollected in what situation, and under what circumstances, Andre made the accusation against his captors. Colonel Tallmadge was the first officer into whose custody Andre was delivered. He received a captive of no ordinary fortune: a few minutes before had seen him in the possession not only of liberty, but, as he supposed, of safety; and, as he fondly hoped, on the eve of reaping the golden harvest of his perilous labours. The war finished—the British cause triumphant—Washington in bondage—and the American army laying down their arms;—such were the flattering anticipations that beguiled the tediousness of his solitary journey. His imagination fondly dwelling on these events, so soon and so certainly to happen, he already heard in fancy the plaudits of the English army sounding in his ears. Fame, wealth, and title, the earnest of his country's gratitude, seemed already to have been conferred; and, to render his sensations more exquisitely delightful, (for Andre was a lover), his mind looked forward to the blissful moment when the object of his affections, glorying in his fame, should bestow the dearest meed of victory, in becoming the partner of his happiness. From a dream of felicity so transcendent, how horrible was the awakening! His fancy was recalled from scenes of refinement, sentiment, and glory, by the rude questioning of the plain-spoken rustics that arrested him. He found himself foiled, his schemes baffled, his hopes blighted, his prospects of an earthly paradise changed to the contemplation of disappointment, captivity, and an ignominious death; and this effected by the agency of beings so coarse, so low, and, in his eyes, so despicable, that the bitterest feelings of rage and mortification must naturally have swelled in his heart and distracted his understanding. In proportion to the elevation of his character must have been the depth of his despair.

'The captive *thrush* may brook the cage:

'The prison'd *eagle* dies for rage.'

In this condition, so trying to the firmness of his soul, with his youthful passions roused into a very tempest that must have overwhelmed alike his judgment and his discretion, he was received by colonel Tallmadge, and then, for the first time since his misfortune, found himself with an equal, to whom he could, without degradation, unbosom his intolerable grief. The generous lion bites the arrow that drinks his life-blood; and thus did the captive's bosom boil with rage against the innocent instruments of his reverse of fortune. No wonder, in such a moment, that he poured out execrations and curses, loud and deep, against his captors. So he would have done had colonel Tallmadge, or Washington himself been in their place. It was human nature, and no more derogates from the

high honour and elevated soul of Andre, than it should do from the probity and magnanimity of his captors.

The ravings of his despair (and when had man more grievous cause for despair?) can furnish no legitimate testimony against the objects of his impotent wrath.

Assertions made at such a time would never be allowed to have any weight against himself; by what rule, then, of equity or reason, ought they to prevail unfavourably to others?

His captors, he told colonel Tallmadge, were a villainous set of wretches, who seized him only for the sake of plunder, and would have released him for a bribe. He could not bear to think well of such dire foes to his happiness, and destroyers of his fortune, and consoled himself in venting his rage upon them in language of opprobrium. He was not to blame; he deserved only our compassion: but colonel Tallmadge should have known human nature better than to allow his judgment to be warped by such evidence. If, indeed, Andre had continued to make the same assertions after he had become more self-possessed, and when the lapse of time, and the near view of death had cooled the fury of his passions, the conclusion might fairly have been drawn against the honesty of the captors, unless some contrary evidence appeared. But Andre did no such thing; it is not pretended that he did, and it is abundantly proved that he did not, by the letter of general Hamilton, written in 1780, and to be found in page 68 of the '*Vindication*.'

Hamilton passed much time with Andre, at his request, and was with him frequently during the awful interval between his sentence and execution, conversed with him familiarly, was treated by him as a friend, received from him all the interesting particulars of his misfortune, learned to admire, respect, and pity him; yet the impressions made on his mind by all this intercourse were different from those which colonel Tallmadge received. With implicit reliance on Andre's honour, with unbounded confidence in his veracity, and with unrestrained freedom of communication, Hamilton imbibed no other opinion of Paulding, Williams, and Vanwart, than that which the whole nation, except colonel Tallmadge, has cherished, and which M. de Marbois so well expresses, and so satisfactorily confirms.

In the letter alluded to, from general Hamilton to colonel Sears, written in 1780, there is the following forcible contrast: 'This man,' (Arnold), 'is in every sense despicable. In addition to the scene of knavery and prostitution, during his command in Philadelphia, which the late seizure of his papers has unfolded, the history of his command at Westpoint is a history of little as well as great villainies. He practised every act of peculation, and even stooped to connexions with the suttlers of the garrison to defraud the public.'

'To his conduct that of the captors of Andre forms a striking contrast; he tempted their integrity with the offer of his watch, his horse, and any sum of money they should name. They rejected his offers with indignation; and the gold that could seduce a man

'high in the esteem and confidence of his country, who had the remembrance of his past exploits, the motives of present reputation and future glory to prop his integrity, had no charms for three simple peasants, leaning only on their virtue, and a sense of duty.'

'While Arnold is handed down with execration to future times, posterity will repeat with reverence the names of Vanwart, Paulding, and Williams.'

To those, if any there be, who still retain a doubt of their honourable motives, we earnestly recommend a careful perusal of the two productions which we have thus noticed.

ART. IV.—*Manfred. A Dramatic Poem.* By Lord Byron. 8vo. Murray, London, 1817. Republished by Van Winkle & Wiley, New-York, & M. Thomas, Philadelphia. From the Edinburgh Monthly Magazine.

LORD BYRON has been elected by acclamation to the throne of poetical supremacy, nor are we disposed to question his title to the crown. There breathes over all his genius an air of kingly dignity; strength, vigour, energy, are his attributes; and he wields his faculties with a proud consciousness of their power, and a confident anticipation of their effect. Living poets perhaps there are, who have taken a wider range, but none who have achieved such complete, such perfect, triumphs. In no great attempt has he ever failed; and, soon as he begins his flight, we feel that he is to soar upon unflagging wings,—that when he has reached the black and tempestuous elevation of his favourite atmosphere, he will, eagle-like, sail on undisturbed through the heart of clouds, storms, and darkness.

To no poet was there ever given so awful a revelation of the passions of the human soul. He surveys, with a stern delight, that tumult and conflict of terrible thoughts from which other highly-gifted and powerful minds have involuntarily recoiled; he calmly and fearlessly stands upon the brink of that abyss from which the soul would seem to shrink with horror, and he looks down upon, and listens to, the everlasting agitation of the howling waters. There are in his poetry feelings, thoughts, sentiments, and passions that we at once recognise to be human, though we know not whence they come; they break upon us like the sudden flash of a returning dream, like some wild cry from another world. And even those whose lives have had little experience of the wilder passions, for a moment feel that an unknown region of their own souls has been revealed to them, and that there are indeed fearful mysteries in our human nature.

When this dark and powerful spirit for a while withdraws from the contemplation of his own wild world, and condescends to look upon the ordinary shows and spectacles of life, he often seems unexpectedly to participate in the feelings and emotions of beings with whom it might be thought he could claim no kindred; and

thus many passages are to be found in his poetry, of the most irresistible and overpowering pathos, in which the depth of his sympathy, with common sorrows and common sufferers, seems as if his nature knew nothing more mournful than sighs and tears.

We have no intention of drawing Lord Byron's poetical character, and have been led, we know not how, into these very general and imperfect observations. But perhaps the little we have said may in some degree show, why hitherto this great poet has dealt so seldom with the forms of the external world. He has so deeply looked into the soul of man, and so intensely sympathised with all the struggles there—that he has had no feelings or passions to fling away on the mere earth he inhabits. But it is evident that the same powers, which he has so gloriously exerted upon man as their subject, would kindle up and enlighten, or darken and disturb, the features of external nature; and that, if he so willed it, his poetry instead of being rife with wrath, despair, remorse, and all other agitating passions, might present an equally sublime assemblage of woods, glens, and mountains,—of lakes and rivers, cataracts, and oceans. In the third canto of *Childe Harold*, accordingly, he has delivered up his soul to the impulses of Nature, and we have seen how that high communion has elevated and sublimed it. He instantly penetrated into her heart as he had before into the heart of Man; and in a few months of solitary wandering among the Alps, his soul became as deeply imbued with her glory and magnificence, as if, from youth, he had dedicated himself to no other power, and had forever devoutly worshipped at her altar. He leapt at once into the first rank of descriptive poets. He came into competition with Wordsworth upon his own ground, and with his own weapons; and in the first encounter, he vanquished and overthrew him. His description of the stormy night among the Alps—of the blending—the mingling—the fusion of his own soul, with the raging elements around him,—is alone worth all the dull metaphysics of the *Excursion*, and shows that he might enlarge the limits of human consciousness regarding the operations of matter upon mind, as widely as he has enlarged them regarding the operations of mind upon itself.

In the very singular and, we suspect, very imperfect poem, of which we are about to give a short account, Lord Byron has pursued the same course as in the third canto of *Childe Harold*, and put out his strength upon the same objects. The action is laid among the mountains of the Alps—the characters are all, more or less, formed or swayed by the operations of the magnificent scenery around them, and every page of the poem teems with imagery and passion, though, at the same time, the mind of the poet is often overborne, as it were, by the strength and novelty of its own conceptions; and thus the composition, as a whole, is liable to many and fatal objections.

But there is a still more novel exhibition of Lord Byron's powers in this extraordinary drama. He has here burst into the world of spirits; and in the wild delight with which the elements of nature seem to have inspired him, he has endeavoured to embody and

call up before him their ministering agents, and to employ these wild Personifications, as he formerly employed the feelings and passions of man. We are not prepared to say, that, in this daring attempt, he has completely succeeded. We are inclined to think that the plan he has conceived, and the principal character which he has wished to delineate, would require a fuller development than is here given to them; and accordingly, a sense of imperfection, incompleteness, and confusion, accompanies the mind throughout the perusal of the poem, owing either to some failure on the part of the poet, or to the inherent mystery of the subject. But though on that account it is difficult to comprehend distinctly the drift of the composition, and almost impossible to give any thing like a distinct account of it, it unquestionably exhibits many noble delineations of mountain scenery,—many impressive and terrible pictures of passion, and many wild and awful visions of imaginary horror.

Manfred, whose strange and extraordinary sufferings pervade the whole drama, is a nobleman who has for many years led a solitary life in his castle among the Bernese Alps. From early youth he has been a wild misanthrope, and has so perplexed himself with his views of human nature, that he comes at last to have no fixed principles of belief on any subject,—to be perpetually haunted by a dread of the soul's mortality, and bewildered among dark and gloomy ideas concerning the existence of a First Cause. We cannot do better than let this mysterious personage speak for himself. In a conversation, which we find him holding by the side of a mountain-cataract, with the 'Witch of the Alps,' whom he raises up by a spell 'beneath the arch of the sun-beam of the torrent,' we find him thus speaking:—

'*Man*. Well, though it torture me, 'tis but the same;

My pang shall find a voice. From my youth upwards

My spirit walk'd not with the souls of men,

Nor look'd upon the earth with human eyes;

The thirst of their ambition was not mine,

The aim of their existence was not mine;

My joys, my griefs, my passions, and my powers,

Made me a stranger; though I wore the form,

I had no sympathy with breathing flesh,

Nor midst the creatures of clay that guided me

Was there but one who—but of her anon.

I said, with men, and with the thoughts of men,

I held but slight communion; but instead,

My joy was in the wilderness, to breathe

The difficult air of the iced mountain's top,

Where the birds dare not build, nor insect's wing

Flit e'er the herbless granite; or to plunge

Into the torrent, and to roll along

On the swift whirl of the new-breaking wave

Of river, stream, or ocean, in their flow.

In these my early strength exulted; or

To follow through the night the moving moon,

The stars and their development; or catch
 The dazzling lightnings till my eyes grew dim;
 Or to look, list'ning, on the scatter'd leaves,
 While autumn winds were at their evening song.
 These were my pastimes, and to be alone;
 For if the beings, of whom I was one,—
 Hating to be so,—cross'd me in my path,
 I felt myself degraded back to them,
 And was all clay again. And then I dived,
 In my lone wanderings, to the caves of death,
 Searching its cause in its effect; and drew
 From wither'd bones, and skulls, and heap'd up dust,
 Conclusions most forbidden. Then I pass'd
 The nights of years in sciences untaught,
 Save in the old time; and with time and toil,
 And terrible ordeal, and such penance
 As in itself hath power upon the air,
 And spirits that do compass air and earth,
 Space and the peopled infinite, I made
 Mine eyes familiar with Eternity.'

In another scene of the drama, where a pious old abbot vainly endeavours to administer to his troubled spirit the consolations of religion, he still farther illustrates his own character.

'*Man. Ay.*—Father! I have had those earthly visions
 And noble aspirations in my youth,
 To make my own the mind of other men,
 The enlightener of nations; and to rise
 I knew not whither—it might be to fall;
 But fall, even as the mountain-cataract,
 Which having leapt from its more dazzling height,
 Even in the foaming strength of its abyss,
 (Which cast up misty columns, that become
 Clouds raining from the re-ascended skies),
 Lies low, but mighty still.—But this is past,
 My thoughts mistook themselves.

Abbot. ——— And wherefore so?

Man. I could not tame my nature down; for he
 Must serve who fain would sway—and soothe—and suc—
 And watch all time—and pry into all place—
 And be a living lie—who would become
 A mighty thing amongst the mean, and such
 The mass are; I disdain to mingle with
 A herd, though to be leader—and of wolves.
 The lion is alone, and so am I.

Abbot. And why not live and act with other men?

Man. Because my nature was averse from life,
 And yet not cruel; for I would not make,
 But find a desolation;—like the wind,
 The red-hot breath of the most lone Simoom,
 Which dwells but in the desert, and sweeps o'er
 The barren sands which bear no shrubs to blast,

And revels o'er their wild and arid waves,
And seeketh not, so that it is not sought,
But being met is deadly; such hath been
The course of my existence; but there came
Things in my path which are no more.'

But besides the anguish and perturbation produced by his fatal scepticism in regard to earth and heaven, vice and virtue, man and God,—*Manfred's* soul has been stained by one secret and dreadful sin, and is bowed down by the weight of blood. It requires to read the drama with more than ordinary attention, to discover the full import of those broken, short, and dark expressions, by which he half confesses, and half conceals, even from himself, the perpetration of this inexpiable guilt. In a conversation with a chamois-hunter, in his Alpine cottage, he thus suddenly breaks out:

'*Man.* Away, away! there's blood upon the brim!

Will it then never—never sink in the earth?

C. Hun. What dost thou mean? thy senses wander from thee.

Man. I say 'tis blood—my blood! the pure warm stream
Which ran in the veins of my fathers, and in ours,
When we were in our youth, and had one heart,
And loved each other as we should not love,
And this was shed; but still it rises up,
Colouring the clouds that shut me out from Heaven,
Where thou art not—and I shall never be.'

He afterwards says:

'My injuries came down on those who loved me—
On those whom I best loved—I never quelled
An enemy save in my just defence,
But my embrace was fatal.'

In the conversation formerly referred to with the 'Witch of the Alps,' he alludes still darkly to the same event.

'*Man.* But to my task. I have not named to thee,
Father, or mother, mistress, friend, or being,
With whom I wore the chain of human ties;
If I had such, they seem'd not such to me—
Yet there was one—

Witch. Spare not thyself—proceed.

Man. She was like me in lineaments—her eyes,
Her hair, her features, all, to the very tone
Even of her voice, they said were like to mine;
But soften'd all, and temper'd into beauty;
She had the same lone thoughts and wanderings,
The quest of hidden knowledge, and a mind
To comprehend the universe; nor these
Alone, but with them gentler powers than mine,
Pity, and smiles, and tears—which I had not;
And tenderness—but that I had for her;
Humility—and that I never had.
Her faults were mine—her virtues were her own—
I lov'd her, and destroy'd her!

Witch. ——— With thy hand?

Man. Not with my hand, but heart—which broke her heart—
It gazed on mine, and withered. I have shed
Blood, but not hers—and yet her blood was shed—
I saw—and could not stanch it.'

From these, and several other passages, it seems that Manfred had conceived a mad and insane passion for his sister, named Asartè, and that she had, in consequence of their mutual guilt, committed suicide. This is the terrible catastrophe which for ever haunts his soul—drives him into the mountain-wilderness—and, finally, by the poignancy of unendurable anguish, forces him to seek intercourse with the prince of the air, witches, demons, destinies, spirits, and all the tribes of immaterial existences. From them he tries to discover those secrets into which his reason cannot penetrate. He commands them to tell him the mystery of the grave. The only being he ever loved has by his means been destroyed. Is all her beauty gone for ever—annihilated—and with it has her spirit faded into nonentity? or is she lost, miserably lost, and suffering the punishment brought on her by his own sin? We believe, that by carrying in the mind a knowledge of this one horrid event—and along with that, those ideas of Manfred's character, which, by the extracts we have given, better than any words of our own, the reader may be enabled to acquire,—the conduct of the drama, though certainly imperfectly and obscurely managed, may be understood, as well as its chief end and object.

. We omit the remaining observations of the Edinburgh editors, partly because of their being extended to a length altogether disproportionate to the importance of the subject; and partly because they swell the panegyric strain to a height, in our judgment, not at all justified by the real merits of the poem.

We do not mean to dispute nor discuss lord Byron's title to the crown with which the Scottish critics would encircle his brows. For the powers of his genius we entertain an equally profound respect, and of his former performances in general we are at least as ardent admirers; but the work now under consideration, the *dramatic poem*, as he calls it, we cannot estimate so highly. If it were the only production of its author, we should be disposed to press gently on its faults, and value it as an earnest of future excellence; but knowing as well as we do, that he can write so much better when he pleases to exert himself, we cannot easily forgive him for trifling with the patience and favour of a partial public, in sending forth such very crude and unfinished performances as *Manfred*.

The endeavour to render the crime of incest venial in the eyes of his readers, by associating it with the magnanimity of his hero, while it shocks all the best feelings of the heart, is not compensated by any extraordinary delight afforded to the imagination by his imagery or sentiment. Whatever there is in *Manfred* of that gloomy yet sublime pathos, which distinguishes and dignifies lord Byron's writings, is chiefly copied from his former productions; and in all

the instances of deviation from his usual strain, it appears to us the change is for the worse. Thus in the citations given above, as well as in all Manfred's soliloquies, we recognise *Lara*, *Conrad*, and *Childe Harold*; but throughout the poem we meet with numerous examples of a roughness in the versification, and a tameness in the incidents, for which we recollect no precedent in any of the author's earlier compositions.

Another little poem has lately appeared, under his name, entitled, "The Lament of Tasso." It would be better placed among the 'fugitive pieces' at the end of a volume, for it has not more than two hundred and fifty lines, than forming in itself a volume; but little as it is, we have read it with more unmixed approbation and pleasure than *Manfred*; because, with as much pathos, it has more simplicity, more purity, and more nature; and its subject, the very reverse of Manfred, is extremely interesting. Tasso, it will be recollected, was confined as a lunatic in the hospital of St. Anna: lord Byron visited the cell which had been the scene of his sufferings, and the *Lament* is the result of the inspiration which his muse then imbibed. He supposes the bard not insane, but falsely accused of being so, to pour out a melancholy wailing in his confinement, and the effusion is characteristic and affecting.

Almost at random we select the following specimen:

'It is no marvel—from my very birth
My soul was drunk with love, which did pervade
And mingle with whate'er I saw on earth;
Of objects all inanimate I made
Idols, and out of wild and lonely flowers
And rocks whereby they grew, a paradise,
Where I did lay me down within the shade
Of waving trees, and dreamed uncounted hours.
Though I was chid for wandering, and the wise
Shook their white aged heads o'er me and said
Of such materials wretched men were made,
And such a truant boy would end in wo,
And that the only lesson was a blow;
And then they smote me, and I did not weep,
But cursed them in my heart, and to my haunt
Returned and wept alone, and dreamed again
The visions which arise without a sleep.
And with my years my soul began to part
With feelings of strange tumult and soft pain;
And the whole heart exhaled into one want,
But undefined and wandering, till the day
I found the thing I sought—and that was thee;
And then I lost my being all to be
Asorbed in thine—the world was past away—
Thou didst annihilate the earth to me!

ART. V.—*Vegetable Materia Medica of the United States; or Medical Botany*. By W. P. C. Barton, M. D. Professor of Botany in the University of Pennsylvania, &c. Published by M. Carey & Son.

No. I. Containing *Chimaphila Umbellata*. (Pippsissewa.)
Sanguinaria Canadensis. (Puccoon.)
Cornus Florida. (Dogwood.)
Triosteum perfoliatum. (Fever wort.)
Gillenia trifoliata (Indian physic.)
Gillenia stipulacea. (Small flowered Indian physic.)

IT is with great pleasure we see this publication; because it is a very praise-worthy instance of appropriate industry from the chair of Botany lately erected in the University of Pennsylvania; and considering that the professor is yet a very young man, it augurs well for the reputation of himself and his country in his riper age, when years of industry and research, such as the public have a right to expect, shall have accumulated knowledge, and matured his judgment. We are particularly glad to see this publication issue from the chair of Pennsylvania, because it shows we are not behind hand with our sister states: and because another gentleman of considerable reputation as a Botanist (Professor Bigelow) is at present a fellow-labourer in the same field of research.

We shall defer the observations we have to make on the subject of Medical Botany, until the appearance of Professor Bigelow's work, as they will equally apply to the one publication and the other; just observing by the way, that great judgment is required, not to load the publication with useless and inert articles; or to recommend, on bare rumour and popular report of the medical utility of a plant. When long experience, or recent, well-conducted experiments by professional inquirers, have ascertained the medical virtues of a vegetable, it becomes a proper subject to be delineated, described, and distinguished in a treatise on Medical Botany; but two-thirds of the vegetables set down in a modern catalogue of *Materia Medica*, would be far better omitted than retained: nor will any botanist serve the cause of medical science by adding to the useless or dubious articles of an already encumbered list.

These remarks are intended, not to apply as criticisms to the present, but as cautions to the future pages of such a work—not to Professor Barton or Professor Bigelow, but to any publication that may appear of a similar nature with the present.

The plan pursued by Dr. Barton will best appear from the following advertisement:

'In describing the plants enumerated and figured in this work, the following plan has been adopted:

The first line in large capitals, contains the systematic or botanical name of the plant, the second line in smaller capitals, contains the common or most general English or vulgar name or names

The English or vulgar names enumerated after, are those by which the plant is occasionally known, and recognised in different sections of our country; and as these are sometimes quite local, they are merely noticed for general information.

The paragraph following these names, contains a reference to the works of different authors who have noticed the plant. Many have been omitted, because the author had not access to them, and some because their works were not scientific.

The generic character follows, together with a reference of the plant to the natural system of Jussieu; the natural order of Linnæus's natural method; and the class and order of the artificial system of this author.

Immediately in succession, the best specific character known is given, with a reference to the author. The synonyms next follow, succeeded by a brief notice of the pharmaceutical preparation of the plant, its virtues, its effects, medical uses and dose.

The *descriptio uberior*, or full description, in Latin, is always supplied for this work by the author, or quoted from his manuscript copy of the *Flora Philadelphica*;* though in cases where a good one has already been given, it will be quoted, with a reference to the author, as in the case of that of *Chimaphila umbellata*.

The text in large type, begins with a general or familiar description of the plant, calculated for the generality of readers, who, with this and the plate, will be, it is hoped, at no loss to identify the plants described.

The chemical analysis, when any has been made, follows; then a history of the medical properties; after which the economical use or uses are noticed; and the history completed by an explanation of the plates, and the dissections of the flowers and fructification contained in them.

P. vii. viii.

The preliminary observations, contain a brief account of the authors who have treated on the medicinal plants of the United States, with considerations on the necessity and utility of such a work as the present. From some of these remarks we might dissent, but they are all proper to be urged, and in place.

Then follow the coloured drawings, synonyms, classification, descriptions, properties and uses of the plants themselves. They seem faithfully delineated from nature, and very accurately coloured; the colouring, Professor Barton has been at the trouble of executing himself, and the specimens of the present number are very satisfactory proofs of industry, accuracy, and skill. Indeed the whole of the publication shows that labour and research has not been spared to make it worthy of public support, and it ought to receive it.

This is a work of promise; from which Dr. Barton may reasonably expect to acquire reputation; and the American public also, are interested that it should do honour in its progress to American science. It is worth while, therefore, to notice such objections as may really, or may appear to detract from its merit, in reviewing the first number particularly; so that being noticed thus early, they may be considered by the author, and avoided in the ensuing numbers, if they should, on reflection, appear to him well founded.

And first, There has been too much neglect in revising the proof sheets of the Latin part of this work. We know, perhaps as well as Dr. Barton, how difficult it is to find a compositor who will set

* This work will be published in about twelve months from this period.

a page in any language but English with tolerable accuracy; and how apt these gentlemen are, to neglect the corrections which an author thinks necessary, and which they do not. But Dr. Barton has undertaken the labour, and his readers will expect that he will go through with it, for his own sake, and for theirs; and not permit the *descriptio uberior* to be most fruitful of faults.

For instance, in page 18, for *virescentia* read *virescentia*.

In the *descriptio uberior* of *sanguinaria*, p. 32.

Succo fulvo exudans Chelidonii. *Exudans*, requires the accusative not the ablative case.

Sub floratione. Is *floratio* a botanical word? It is not to be found in the Terminology of Linnæus or of Willdenow. *Frondescentia* is the leafing of a plant; *florescentia* is, for like reason, the flowering of a plant. *Sub*, is an inelegant substitute for *ante*.

Scapo constanter uniflora. This is a mistake in gender; and *constanter* would be well exchanged for *semper*.

Florum petala alba vel roseo—striata, perquam varians numero et magnitudine: this is a mistake in number.

Gillenia trifoliata, p. 66. *Caulium plurimum, versus summitatem ramosarum, et plerumque rubicundarum*. What governs this collection of genitive cases? *Obtusata*: this is an awkward, though to be sure, not a new word; so is *montosis*. So we think is *acumen* in the sense intended. *Plurimum*, is just tolerable.

For *soliis*, read *solis*.

There are some others of minor consequence, but they should be corrected.

Secondly, The case is frequently and unnecessarily changed. If the nominative be used at the commencement of the description, it should be continued throughout, and not needlessly or fantastically changed for the ablative. Sometimes without any assignable reason, the nominative changes to the genitive, as in the case of *Gillenia trifoliata*. *Radix perennis*. *Caulium plurimum, versus summitatem ramosarum, &c.* *Summitas* is used, but like *obtusata* and *montosis*, it sounds very harsh to a classical ear.

Thirdly, The parts of the plant should be printed in Italics, to distinguish it from the characters: the characters are not separated by the pointing or stopping; a period should not intervene till the characters belonging to the part of the plant under description, are finished. Thus:

Petala lineari-lanceolata, obtusiuscula, et ubi cum calice juncta, sub-unguiculata. Colore sunt alba, rariter albido-rosea. It should have been printed thus:

Petala, lineari-lanceolata, obtusiuscula, et ubi cum calice juncta, sub-unguiculata; colore, alba; raro albido-rosea. For if a full stop be placed after *sub-unguiculata*, *petala* ought to be repeated after *colore*.

These remarks do not touch essentials, but they would greatly promote perspicuity if attended to. Probably the inattention be-

longs to the printer in the first instance, and Dr. Barton's corrections overlooked: a case so common as easily to suggest itself.

Fourthly, We could wish the good old custom continued of using accents for the ablative and genitive cases; though the modern stile of printing, which would gladly sacrifice the sense of the passage to the seemliness of the page, forbids it. This is no fault of Dr. Barton's, who probably could not obtain letters thus marked. But they ought to be cast.

Fifthly, There are so many marks of real unequivocal industry in this work, that it needs no parade of research. We could wish, therefore, that Dr. Barton would distinguish his references into those he has actually consulted, and those referred to at second hand; some of which are not in America, as we strongly suspect. If this were attended to, it would obviate a

Sixth objection. In some instances the plant described by Dr. Barton is not mentioned under the same name in the author referred to. For instance, the *Gillenia trifoliata*, has been separated by a few German botanists from the *Spiræa trifoliata* of Linnæus. Dr. Barton is at full liberty to separate *Gillenia* from the genus *Spiræa*, but he should notice this in citing from Linnæus.

These remarks we venture upon, not to obtrude them upon Dr. Barton's adoption, but on his consideration. He will value them at his own rate. If he had not so much merit as he has, we should not have taken the trouble of hunting up these hypercriticisms: but we are anxious that he should attend in future to minutiae, which sometimes turn out of more importance than they at first appear.

C.

ART. VI.—*Lalla Rookh. An Oriental Romance.* By THOMAS MOORE. 4to. London, Longman & Co. 1817. Republished by M. Thomas, Philadelphia, in 18mo. and by Kirk & Mercein, Van Winkle & Wiley, New-York, 24mo.

MR. MOORE is beyond all comparison the most ingenious, brilliant, and fanciful Poet of the present age. His external senses seem more delicate and acute than those of other men; and thus perceptions and sensations crowd in upon him from every quarter, apparently independent of volition, and with all the vehemence and vivacity of instinct. He possesses the poetical temperament to excess, and his mind seems always in a state of pleasure, gladness, and delight, even without the aid of imagination, and by means merely of the constant succession and accumulation of feelings, sentiments, and images. The real objects of our every-day world to his eyes glow with all the splendour of a dream, and even during the noon of manhood, he beholds, in all the works of creation, that fresh and unimpaired novelty which forms the glory, and so rarely survives the morning of life. Along with this extreme delicacy and fineness of organization, he possesses an ever-active and creative fancy, which at all times commands the whole range of his previously acquired images, and suddenly, as at the waving

of a magic wand, calls them up into life and animation. Feeling and fancy, therefore, are the distinguishing attributes of his poetical character; yet is he far from being unendowed with loftier qualities, and he occasionally exhibits a strength of intellect, and a power of imagination, which raise him above that class of writers to which he might otherwise seem to belong, and place him triumphantly by the side of our greatest Poets.

With this warmth of temperament, exceeding even the ordinary vivacity of the Irish national character, and with a fancy so lively and volatile, it behoved Mr. Moore, when first starting as a poet in early life, to be cautious in the choice both of his models and his subjects. In both he was most unfortunate; and every lover of virtue must lament, that while his first productions sometimes breathe and glow with genuine feeling and passion, and often exhibit harmless and amusing flights of capricious fancy, they are so fatally infected with a spirit to which we can give no other name than licentiousness, and which is incompatible with that elevation and dignity of moral sentiment essential to the very existence of real Poetry.

But though he was thus early led astray, he soon began to feel how mean and how unworthy were even the highest triumphs won in such a field, and to pant for nobler achievements. Even in his most unguarded and indefensible productions, his ideas were too bright, sparkling, fugitive, and ærial, to become the slavish ministers of sensuality. His mind was unduly inflamed, but it was not corrupted. The vital spirit of virtue yet burned strong in his soul,—its flame soon began to glow with less wavering lustre, and with manifest aspiration to its native heaven. The errors and aberrations of his youthful genius seemed forgotten by his soul, as it continued to advance through a nobler and purer region; and it is long since Mr. Moore has redeemed himself—nobly redeemed himself, and become the eloquent and inspired champion of virtue, liberty, and truth.

There can indeed be no greater mistake, than to consider this Poet, since his genius has ripened and come to maturity, as a person merely full of conceits, ingenuity, and facetiousness. Many of his songs are glorious compositions, and will be immortal. Whatever is wild, impassioned, chivalrous, and romantic, in the history of his country, and the character of his countrymen, he has touched with a pencil of light,—nor is it too high praise to say of him, that he is the Burns of Ireland. True, that he rarely exhibits that intense strength and simplicity of emotion by which some of the best songs of our great national Poet carry themselves, like music from Heaven, into the depths of our soul,—but whenever imagination requires and asks the aid of her sister fancy,—whenever generous and lofty sensibilities, to the glory and triumph of human nature, display themselves in the concentration of patriotism or devotion, then the genius of Moore expands and kindles, and his strains are nobly and divinely *lyrical*. If Burns surpass him in simplicity and

pathos—as certainly does he surpass Burns in richness of fancy—in variety of illustration—in beauty of language—in melody of verse—and, above all, in that polished unity, and completeness of thought and expression, so essential in all lyrical composition, and more particularly so in songs, which, being short, are necessarily disfigured by the smallest violation of language, the smallest dimness, weakness, or confusion in the thought, image, sentiment, or passion.

Entertaining the opinion which we have now imperfectly expressed of Mr. Moore's poetical character, we opened *Lalla Rookh* with confident expectations of finding beauty in every page; and we have not been disappointed. He has, by accurate and extensive reading, imbued his mind with so familiar a knowledge of eastern scenery—that we feel as if we were reading the poetry of one of the children of the Sun. No European image ever breaks or steals in to destroy the illusion—every tone, and hue, and form, is purely and intensely Asiatic—and the language, faces, forms, dresses, mien, sentiments, passions, actions, and characters of the different agents, are all congenial with the flowery earth they inhabit, and the burning sky that glows over their heads. That proneness to excessive ornament, which seldom allows Mr. Moore to be perfectly simple and natural—that blending of fanciful and transient feelings, with bursts of real passion—that almost bacchanalian rapture with which he revels, amid the beauties of external nature, till his senses seem lost in a vague and indefinite enjoyment—that capricious and wayward ambition which often urges him to make his advances to our hearts, rather by the sinuous and blooming bye-ways and lanes of the fancy, than by the magnificent and royal road of the imagination—that fondness for the delineation of female beauty and power, which often approaches to extravagancy and idolatry, but at the same time, is rarely unaccompanied by a most fascinating tenderness—in short, all the *peculiarities of his genius* adapt him for the composition of an Oriental Tale, in which we are prepared to meet with, and to enjoy, a certain lawless luxuriance of imagery, and to tolerate a certain rhapsodical wildness of sentiment and passion.

There is considerable elegance, grace, and ingenuity, in the contrivance, by which the four Poems that compose the volume are introduced to the reader. They are supposed to be recited by a young poet, to enliven the evening hours of *Lalla Rookh*, daughter of the Emperor of Delhi, who is proceeding in great state and magnificence to Bucharra to meet her destined husband, the monarch of that kingdom. Of course, the princess and the poet fall desperately in love with each other—and *Lalla* looks forward with despair to her interview with her intended husband. But perhaps most novel readers will be prepared for the denouement better than the simple-minded *Lalla Rookh*, and will not, like her, be startled to find, that *Feramorz* the poet, and *Ahris* the king, are one and the same personage. All that relates to *Lalla Rookh* and her royal and poetical lover, is in prose—but prose of so flowery a kind, that it yields no relief to the mind, if worn out or wearied

by the poetry. Neither do we think Fadladeen, that old musty Mahomedan critic, in any way amusing—though he sometimes hits upon objections to the poetry of Feramorz, which it might not be very easy to answer. Can it be, that a man of genius like Mr. Moore is afraid of criticism, and seeks to disarm it by anticipation? But let us turn to the poetry.

The first poem is entitled, "The Veiled Prophet of Khorassan."* It opens thus:—

"In that delightful Province of the Sun,
The first of Persian lands he shines upon,
Where all the loveliest children of his beam,
Flowrets and fruits blush over every stream,
And, fairest of all streams, the Murga roves
Among Merou's† bright palaces and groves;—
There, on that throne, to which the blind belief
Of millions rais'd him, sat the Prophet-chief,
The Great Mokanna. O'er his features hung
The Veil, the Silver Veil, which he had flung
In mercy there, to hide from mortal sight
His dazzling brow, till man could bear the light.
For, far less luminous, his votaries said,
Were ev'n the gleams, miraculously shed
O'er Moussa's‡ cheek, when down the mount he trod,
All glowing from the presence of his God!"

This Mokanna is an Impostor, who works upon the enthusiasm of his followers by the assumption of a divine character—and whose ostensible object is the destruction of all false religions, and every kind of tyranny and despotism. When these glorious objects are attained, he is then to throw aside his Silver Veil and admit the ennobled souls of men to gaze upon his refulgent visage. In reality, however, he is a Being of a fiendish and demoniac nature, hating God and man, and burning for power and empire, that he may trample upon human nature with derision, mockery, and outrage, and thus insult and blaspheme the Eternal. The dominion which he exercises over his superstitious proselytes—the successful progress of his career—his lofty, wild, and mysterious doctrines—the splendour of his kingly state—the gorgeous magnificence of his array—the rich moresque-work of his Haram—and the beauties from a hundred realms which it encloses—are all described with great power and effect, though not unfrequently with no little extravagance and exaggeration. In his Haram is Zelica, the heroine of the poem, whom the supposed death of her lover Azim has driven into a kind of insanity. Mokanna so works upon the frenzied enthusiasm of her disordered mind, as to convince her, that before she can enter into heaven, she must renounce her oaths of fidelity to Azim, and bind herself for ever on the earth to him, the Impostor. He conducts her into a charnel-vault, and there, sur-

* Khorassan signifies, in the old Persian language, Province, or Region of the sun.—*Sir W. Jones*.

† One of the royal cities of Khorassan.

‡ Moses.

rounded with the ghastly dead, she takes the fatal oath, and seals it by a draught of human blood. Meanwhile, Azim returns from foreign war, and joins the banners of the Impostor. He then discovers the wicked arts of Mokanna, and the ruin of Zelica—abandons the Silver Veil—joins the army of the Caliph, and routs the Prophet-chief in various battles, till he forces him and his remaining infatuated followers to shut themselves up in a fortress. Mokanna finding farther resistance in vain, poisons all his troops—and after venting his rage, hatred, and contempt on Zelica, leaps into a cistern of such potent poison, that his body is dissolved in a moment. Zelica covers herself with the Silver Veil, and Azim, leading the storming party, mistakes her for Mokanna, and kills her.

We could present our readers with many passages of tenderness and beauty from this singular Poem; but as we shall have occasion to quote some stanzas of that character from “Paradise and the Peri,” we shall confine ourselves to two extracts, in which Mr. Moore has successfully attempted a kind of composition new to him; the one describing the armament of the Caliph as he marched against the Impostor, and the other, the last fatal feast, at which Mokanna poisons the adherents of his fallen fortunes.

“Whose are the glided tents that crown the way,
Where all was waste and silent yesterday?
This City of War, which, in a few short hours,
Hath sprung up here, as if the magic powers
Of Him, who, in the twinkling of a star,
Built the high pillared halls of Chilminar,*
Had conjured up, far as the eye can see,
This world of tents, and domes, and sunbright armory!—
Princely pavilions, screened by many a fold
Of crimson cloth, and topped with balls of gold;
Steeds, with their housings of rich silver spun,
Their chains and pottrels glittering in the sun;
And camels, tufted o’er with Yemen’s shells,
Shaking in every breeze their light-toned bells!
But yester-eve, so motionless around,
So mute was this wide plain, that not a sound
But the far torrent, or the locust-bird†
Hunting among the thickets, could be heard;—
Yet, hark! what discords now of every kind,
Shouts, laughs, and screams, are swelling in the wind!
The neigh of cavalry;—the tinkling throngs
Of laden camels, and their drivers’ songs;—
Ringing of arms, and flapping in the breeze

* “The edifices of Chilminar and Balbec are supposed to have been built by the Genii, acting under the orders of Jan Ben Jan, who governed the world long before the time of Adam.”

† “A native of Khorassan, and allured southward by means of the water of a fountain between Shiraz and Ispahan, called the Fountain of the Birds, of which it is so fond, that it will follow wherever that water is carried.”

Of streamers from ten thousand canopies;—
 War-music, bursting out from time to time,
 With gong and tymbolon's tremendous chime;—
 Or, in the pause, when harsher sounds are mute;
 The mellow breathings of some horn or flute,
 That, far off, broken by the eagle note
 Of the Abyssinian trumpet,* swell and float!"

If this be splendid and magnificent, the following is no less wild and terrible.

" 'Twas more than midnight now,—a fearful pause
 Had followed the long shouts, the wild applause,
 That lately from those Royal Gardens burst,
 Where the Veil'd Demon held his feast accurst,
 When Zelica—alas, poor ruin'd heart,
 In every horror doom'd to bear its part!—
 Was bidden to the banquet by a slave,
 Who, while his quivering lip the summons gave,
 Grew black, as though the shadows of the grave
 Compassed him round, and, ere he could repeat
 His message through, fell lifeless at her feet!
 Shuddering she went—a soul-felt pang of fear,
 A presage that her own dark doom was near,
 Roused every feeling, and brought Reason back
 Once more, to writhe her last upon the rack.
 All round seemed tranquil; even the foe had ceased,
 As if aware of that demoniac feast,
 His fiery bolts; and though the heavens looked red,
 'Twas but some distant conflagration's spread.
 But, hark!—she stops—she listens—dreadful tone!
 'Tis her Tormentor's laugh—and now a groan,
 A long death-groan, comes with it—can this be
 The place of mirth, the bower of revelry?
 She enters—Holy Alla! what a sight
 Was there before her! By the glimmering light
 Of the pale dawn, mixed with the flame of brands
 That round lay burning, dropped from lifeless hands,
 She saw the board in splendid mockery spread,
 Rich censers breathing,—garlands over head,—
 The urns, the cups, from which they late had quaffed,
 All gold and gems, but—what had been the draught?
 Oh! who need ask, that saw those livid guests,
 With their swollen heads sunk blackening on their breasts,
 Or looking pale to heaven with glassy glare,
 As if they sought, but saw no mercy there;
 As if they felt, though poison racked them through,
 Remorse the deadlier torment of the two!
 While some, the bravest, hardest in the train
 Of their false Chief, who on the battle-plain
 Would have met death with transport by his side

* "This trumpet is often called in Abyssinia, *nesser cano*, which signifies the note of the eagle."—*Note of Bruce's editor.*

Here mute and helpless gasped;—but as they died
 Looked horrible vengeance with their eyes' last strain,
 And clenched the slackening hand at him in vain.
 Dreadful it was to see the ghastly stare,
 The stony look of horror and despair,
 Which some of these expiring victims cast
 Upon their souls' tormentor to the last;—
 Upon that mocking Fiend, whose Veil now raised,
 Show'd them, as in death's agony they gazed,
 Not the long promised light, the brow, whose beaming
 Was to come forth, all conquering, all redeeming,
 But features horribler than Hell e'er traced
 On its own brood—no Demon of the Waste,*
 No church-yard Ghoul, caught lingering in the light
 Of the blessed sun, e'er blasted human sight
 With lineaments so foul, so fierce, as those
 Th' Impostor now in grinning mockery shows.—
 'There, ye wise Saints, behold your Light, your Star—
 Ye *would* be dupes and victims, and ye *are*.
 Is it enough? or must I, while a thrill
 Lives in your sapient bosoms, cheat you still?
 Swear that the burning death you feel within
 Is but a trance, with which heaven's joys begin;
 'That this foul visage, foul as e'er disgraced
 Even monstrous man, is—after God's own taste;
 And that—but see!—ere I have half-way said
 My greetings through, th' uncourteous souls are fled.
 Farewell, sweet spirits! not in vain ye die,
 If *Eblis* loves you half so well as I.—
 Ha, my young bride!—'tis well—take thou thy seat;
 Nay, come—no shuddering—didst thou never meet
 The Dead before?—they graced our wedding, sweet,
 And these my guests to-night have brimmed so true
 Their parting cups, that *thou* shalt pledge one too.
 But—how is this?—all empty? all drunk up?
 Hot lips have been before thee in the cup,
 Young bride,—yet stay—one precious drop remains
 Enough to warm a gentle Priestess' veins!—
 Here, drink—and should thy lover's conquering arms
 Speed hither, ere thy lip lose all its charms,
 Give him but half this venom in thy kiss,
 And I'll forgive my haughty rival's bliss.'”

From this very general outline of the story, and from these extracts, our readers will perceive that this singular Poem abounds in striking, though somewhat extravagant, situations, incidents, and characters. There is something very fine in the Vision of the Sil-

* “The Afghans believe each of the numerous solitudes and deserts of their country to be inhabited by a lonely demon, whom they call the *Ghoollee Beeban*, or Spirit of the Waste. They often illustrate the wildness of any sequestered tribe, by saying, they are wild as the Demon of the Waste.” *Elphinstone's Caubul*.

ver Veil floating ever in the van of battle, and in the unquaking and invincible faith of the Believers in the mysterious Being whose glories it is supposed to shroud. The wildness and madness of religious fanaticism entempests and tumultuates the whole Poem; and perhaps that fanaticism strikes us with more mournful and melancholy awe, from the wickedness of him who inspires it; and who rejoicingly awakens both the good and bad passions of man, to delude, to mock, and destroy him.

The character of Mokanna is, we think, originally and vigorously conceived, though perhaps its formation is attributed too exclusively to the gnawing sense of his hideous deformity of countenance. But this is an Eastern tale; and in all the fictions of the East, whether they regard characters or events, nature is described only in her extravagances. Nor does this proceed solely from the wayward imagination of Eastern genius; for the history of those mighty kingdoms exhibits the wonderful career of many a wild and fantastic spirit, many a dream-like change, many a mysterious revolution. Thrones have been overturned, and altars demolished, by men starting suddenly up in all the power of savage enthusiasm; and every realm has had its Prophets and Impostors, its conquerors and Kings. The display, indeed, of successful imposture in politics or religion has not been confined to the kingdoms of the East; but there it has assumed the wildest and most extravagant form,—has sprung from, and been supported by, the strongest passions, and has most lamentably overthrown, ruined, and degraded, the character of man.

Different, indeed, as the situations in which Mokanna is placed are to those of another fictitious personage, there is, notwithstanding, a striking similarity in their characters, and in the causes to which the formation of that character is attributed,—we mean the *Black Dwarf*. He comes deformed into the world; the injury, scorn, misfortunes, and miseries, which that deformity brings upon him, distort his feelings and his reason,—inspire him with a malignant hatred of his kind, and a sullen disbelief in the goodness of Providence. So far he bears a general resemblance to Mokanna. But the Black Dwarf is the inhabitant of a lonely cottage on a lonely moor; his life is past in a hideous solitude; the few persons who come in contact with him are low or ordinary mortals; his hatred of his kind is sullenly passive, or active only in bursts of passion, of which *man*, rather than *men*, is the uninjured object; while the darkness of his soul is occasionally enlightened by transient gleams of pity, tenderness, penitence, and remorse. But Mokanna starts up from the unknown region of his birth, at once a Prophet and a Conqueror; he is for ever surrounded with power and majesty; and the “Silver Veil” may be supposed to be the shrine of incarnate Deity. His hatred of man, and horror of himself, urge him *to destroy*. He is the Evil Spirit; nor is he satisfied with bloodshed, though it drench a whole land, unless he can also ruin the soul, and create wickedness out of misery. Which of these cha-

racters is the most impressive, we shall not decide. They are both natural; that is to say, we can conceive them to exist in nature. Perhaps greater powers of genius was required to dignify and impart a character of sublimity to the wretched and miserable Dwarf, in the stone hut of his own building, than to Mokanna; beneath his Silver Veil, and in his palace of porphyry.

The character of Zelica is, in many places, touched with great delicacy and beauty, but it is very dimly conceived, and neither vigorously nor consistently executed. The progress of that mental malady, which ultimately throws her into the power of the impostor, is confusedly traced; and very frequently philosophical observations and physical facts, on the subject of insanity, are given in the most unemphatic and heavy language, when the Poet's mind should have been entirely engrossed with the case of the individual before him. For a long time we cannot tell whether Mokanna has effected her utter ruin or not, Mr. Moore having the weakness to conceal that, of which the distinct knowledge is absolutely necessary to the understanding of the poem. There is also a good deal of trickery in the exhibition he makes of this lady's mental derangement. Whether she be in the haram, the gardens of the haram, the charnel-house, or the ramparts of a fortress, she is always in some uncommon attitude, or some extraordinary scene. At one time she is mad, and at another she is perfectly in her senses; and often, while we are wondering at her unexpected appearance, she is out of sight in a moment, and leaves us almost as much bewildered as herself. On the whole her character is a failure.

Of Azim we could say much, if it were not that the situations in which he is placed so strongly reminds us of Lord Byron's heroes. There is nothing like plagiarism or servile imitation about Mr. Moore, but the current of his thoughts has been drawn into the more powerful one of Lord Byron's mind; and, except that Azim is represented as a man of good principles, he looks, speaks, and acts, exactly in the style of those energetic heroes who have already so firmly established themselves in the favour of the public. We confess, therefore, that we have not felt for him the interest due to his youth, beauty, valour, misfortunes and death.

The next poem is entitled "Paradise and the Peri." It opens thus:

One morn, a Peri at the gate
Of Eden stood, disconsolate;
And as she listen'd to the Springs
Of Life within, like music flowing,
And caught the light upon her wings,
Through the half-open portal glowing,
She wept, to think her recreant race
Should e're have lost that glorious place."

The angel who keeps the gates of light then tells the Peri the conditions on which she may be re-admitted into Paradise.

" 'Tis written in the Book of Fate,
THE PERI YET MAY BE FORGIVEN,

WHO BRINGS TO THIS ETERNAL GATE.

THE GIFT THAT IS MOST DEAR TO HEAV'N!

Go, seek it, and redeem thy sin;—

'Tis sweet to let the Pardon'd in.' "

The Peri then flies away in quest of this gift, and in a field of battle beholds a glorious youth slain, when endeavouring to destroy the invader of his country. She carries to the gates of Paradise a drop of blood from his heroic heart; but,

" ' Sweet,' said the Angel, as she gave

The gift into his radiant hand,

' Sweet is our welcome of the Brave

Who died thus for their native land.

But see,—alas!—the crystal bar

Of Eden moves not;—holier far

Than ev'n this drop the boon must be,

That opes the gates of heav'n for thee! "

Once more the Peri wings her flight to earth, and, after bathing her plumage in the fountains of the Nile, floats over the grots, the balmy groves, and the royal sepulchres of Egypt, till at length she alights in the vale of Rosetta near the azure calm of the lake of Mæris. This beautiful scene is devastated by the plague, and

" Just then, beneath some orange trees,

Whose fruit and blossoms in the breeze

Were wantoning together, free,

Like age at play with infancy,

Beneath that fresh and springing bower,

Close by the Lake, she heard the moan

Of one who, at this silent hour,

Had thither stolen to die alone;

One who, in life, where'er he moved,

Drew after him the hearts of many;

Yet now, as though he ne'er was loved,

Dies here—unseen, unwept, by any!"

But he is not left alone to die.—

" But see—who yonder comes by stealth,

This melancholy bower to seek,

Like a young envoy, sent by Health,

With rosy gifts upon her cheek!

'Tis she—far off, through moonlight dim,

He knew his own betrothed bride;

She, who would rather die with him,

Than live to gain the world beside!—

Her arms are round her lover now,

His livid cheek to her's she presses,

And dips, to bind his burning brow,

In the cool lake, her loosen'd tresses."

The lovers die in each other's arms, and the Peri carries up to paradise the farewell sigh breathed by the devoted maid. The reader of this part of the poem will not fail to observe a most striking similarity in the description of the death of these lovers, to the death of Frankfort and Magdalene, in Mr. Wilson's 'City

of the Plague,' which indeed Mr. Moore himself notices, with high commendation of the corresponding passage. A coincidence so striking, and yet so entirely accidental, may serve to show the folly of those critics who are for ever raising the cry of plagiarism, and who cannot conceive the souls of two poets affected by the breath of the same inspiration.—But even this holy sigh fails to win admittance to the Peri who, once more winging her way to the Holy Land, floats through the dying sunshine that bathes Mount Lebanon, and circling the ruins of the Temple of the Sun at Balbec, alights beneath the shadow of its ruined columns. Here she sees a beautiful child at play among the rosy wild-flowers while a man of a fierce and savage aspect dismounts from his steed, in all the perturbation of guilt and remorse.

“Yet tranquil now, that man of crime
 (As if the balmy evening time
 Softened his spirit) looked, and lay
 Watching the rosy infant's play:—
 Though still, whene'er his eye by chance
 Fell on the boy's, its lurid glance
 Met that unclouded, joyous gaze,
 As torches, that have burnt all night
 Through some impure and godless rite,
 Encounter morning's glorious rays,
 But, hark! the vesper-call to prayer,
 As slow the orb of day-light sets,
 Is rising sweetly on the air,
 From SYRIA's thousand minarets!
 The boy has started from the bed
 Of flowers, where he had laid his head,
 And down upon the fragrant sod
 Kneels, with his forehead to the south,
 Lising the Eternal name of God
 From purity's own cherub mouth,
 And looking, while his hands and eyes
 Are lifted to the glowing skies,
 Like a stray babe of Paradise,
 Just lighted on that flowery plain,
 And seeking for its home again!
 Oh, 'twas a sight—that Heav'n—that Child—
 A scene, which might have well beguiled
 Ev'n haughty EBLIS of a sigh
 For glories past, and peace gone by!
 And how felt he, the wretched man,
 Reclining there—while memory ran
 O'er many a year of guilt and strife,
 Flew o'er the dark flood of his life,
 Nor found one sunny resting place,—
 Nor brought him back one branch of grace!
 “There *was* a time,” he said, in mild
 Heart-humbled tenes—“thou blessed child!
 When young and haply pure as thou,

I looked and prayed like thee—but now—”
 He hung his head—each nobler aim,
 And hope, and feeling, which had slept
 From boyhood's hour, that instant came
 Fresh o'er him, and he wept—he wept!”

The Peri carries a tear of penitence to Paradise—the gates unfold—and the angel welcomes her into eternal bliss.

We think this Poem, on the whole, the most beautiful and characteristic of all Mr. Moore's compositions. Though wild and fanciful, it everywhere makes an appeal to the heart; and we can allow the flight of a Peri to be described with more gorgeous and brilliant colouring than the real or imaginary travels of an ordinary mortal. Accordingly the ornamental and descriptive parts, though long and protracted, never weary, and we willingly resign ourselves up to a delightful dream. It might not perhaps have been in Mr. Moore's power to have opened the gate of the dungeon-soul of guilt, and brought into our ears all the terrible sounds that disturb its haunted darkness. He has followed a safer course, and confined himself rather to the outward signs of remorse than its inward agonies. There is therefore nothing in this tale that can entitle Mr. Moore to be classed with those Poets who have penetrated into the deepest and darkest recesses of the soul; but there is much in it to render him worthy of taking his place among the best of those whose genius has breathed a new beauty over innocence and virtue.

We shall give our readers an account in our next Number, of the two remaining poems, the 'Fire Worshippers,' and the 'Light of the Haram.' We may perhaps then speak a little more at length of Mr. Moore's faults, which we indistinctly feel to be numerous, and blended, we fear incurable, with his merits. But we wished, at present to give those of our readers who have not seen the volume an idea of its general character; and this we hope, we have done more effectually by the means now pursued, than if we had indulged ourselves in minute and captious criticism.

ART. VII.—*France, by Lady Morgan.*

FROM this very amusing book we make the following extracts, for the entertainment of our readers. Lady Morgan does not pretend to be a politician nor a philosopher, but leaving questions of national policy and statistics to be discussed by masculine authors, and confining her attention to characteristics of manners and taste, she has produced the most interesting volume which has yet appeared on the subject of modern France.

'We found general La Fayette surrounded by his patriarchal family;—his excellent son and daughter-in-law, his two daughters (the sharers of his dungeon in Olmutz) and their husbands; eleven grand-children, and a venerable grand-uncle, the ex-grand prior of Malta, with hair as white as snow, and his cross and his order worn as proudly as when he had issued forth at the head of his pious troops, against the '*haynim foe*,' or Christian enemy. Such was the group that received us in the salon of La Grange; such was the close-knit circle that made our breakfast

and our dinner party; accompanied us in our delightful rambles through the grounds and woods of La Grange, and constantly presented the most perfect unity of family interests, habits, taste, and affections.

We naturally expect to find strong traces of time in the form of those, with whose name and deeds we have been long acquainted; of those who had obtained the suffrages of the world, almost before we had entered it. But, on the person of La Fayette, time has left no impression; not a wrinkle furrows the ample brow; and his unbent, and noble figure, is still as upright, bold, and vigorous, as the mind that informs it. Grace, strength, and dignity still distinguish the fine person of this extraordinary man; who though more than forty years before the world, engaged in scenes of strange and eventful conflict, does not yet appear to have reached his climacteric. Bustling and active in his farm, graceful and elegant in his salon, it is difficult to trace, in one of the most successful agriculturists, and one of the most perfect fine gentlemen that France has produced, a warrior and a legislator. The patriot, however, is always discernible.

In the full possession of every faculty and talent he ever possessed, the memory of M. La Fayette has all the tenacity of unworn youthful recollection; and, besides these, high views of all that is most elevated in the mind's conception. His conversation is brilliantly enriched with anecdotes of all that is celebrated, in character and event, for the last fifty years. He still talks with unwearied delight, of his short visit to England, to his friend Mr. Fox, and dwelt on the *witchery* of the late dutchess of Devonshire, with almost boyish enthusiasm. He speaks and writes English with the same elegance he does his native tongue. He has made himself master of all that is best worth knowing, in English literature and philosophy. I observed that his library contained many of our most eminent authors upon all subjects. His elegant, and well chosen collection of books, occupies the highest apartments in one of the towers of the château; and, like the study of Montaigne, hangs over the farm-yard of the philosophical agriculturist.—‘It frequently happens,’ said M. La Fayette, as we were looking out of the window at some flocks which were moving beneath, ‘it frequently happens that my merinos, and my hay carts, dispute my attention with your Hume, or our own Voltaire.’

He spoke with great pleasure on the visit paid him at La Grange some years ago by Mr. Fox and general Fitzpatrick. He took me out, the morning after my arrival, to show me a tower, richly covered with ivy:—‘It was Fox,’ he said, ‘who planted that ivy! I have taught my grand-children to venerate it.’

The château La Grange does not, however, want other points of interest.*—Founded by Louis Le Gros, and occupied by the princes of Lorraine, the mark of a cannon ball is still visible in one of its towers, which penetrated the masonry, when attacked by *maréchal Turenne*. Here, in the plain, but spacious *salon-à-manger*, [eating-room], the peasantry of the neighbourhood, and the domestics of the castle, assemble every Sunday evening in winter, to dance to the violin of the *concierger*, [porter], and are regaled with cakes, and *eau-sucrée*. The general is

* The château and territory of La Grange Blessnau, belonged to the Noailles' family, and came into M. La Fayette's hands, in right of madame La Fayette.

usually, and his family are *always*, present at these rustic balls. The young people occasionally dance among the tenantry, and set the examples of new steps, freshly imported by their Paris dancing-master.

At the château D'Orsonville, the seat of the marquis and marchioness de Colbert Chabonais, I observed great attention was paid to procuring innocent recreation for their tenantry and peasantry. In the lawn before the castle windows there was a '*jeu de bague*,' (a sort of merry go-round), a swing, a spot cleared for them to dance on, and many little sources of amusement, invented and multiplied, to preserve them from the temptation of the village tavern. On Sundays they crowded on the lawn with a confidence in their welcome, that was quite delightful. In the good old times, when the '*manie de bergerie*' [pastoral mania] peopled the grounds of the château, for a few weeks in the summer, with shepherds à *toupet frisé*, [with frized *toupees*], and shepherdesses in court-hoops, (the originals of the figures which ornament chimney-pieces in Sevres china, and biscuit), it was the fashion to talk in raptures of the country, but to stipulate, at the same time, in the marriage articles, that it should only be visited for a certain period in the year. Then, as now, the peasants were occasionally invited to rural festivities on the box-lined lawns of the château, but a dance, à la *ronde*, was liable to be interrupted by its members being sent to the *gallies*, for some recent violation of the *droits de chasse*, [game laws], and the gay candidates for the '*jeu de bague*' to be dispatched, *à l'improvisu*, to fulfil the duties of the *corvée*, in some distant district. There were then *no rights, no securities* for the people, and there could be *no confidence*, and but *little enjoyment*.

In the summer, this patriarchal re-union takes place in the park, where a space is cleared for the purpose, shaded by the lofty trees which encircle it. A thousand times, in contemplating La Fayette, in the midst of this charming family, the last years of the life of the chancellor de l'Hôpital recurred to me,—he, whom the *naïve* Brantome likens to Cato; and who, loving liberty as he hated faction, retired from a court unworthy of his virtues, to his little domain of Vignay, which he cultivated himself. There, surrounded by his wife and children, nine grand-children, and a number of faithful servants, grown gray in his service, he describes his life in the following simple and natural manner:—'*Je vis comme Laërte, cultivant mes champs, et ne regrettant rien de ce que j'ai laissé. Je voudrais plus cette retraite, qui satisfait mon coeur et flatte également ma vanité; j'aime à me représenter, à la suite de ces fameux exiles d'Athènes et de Rome, que leur vertu avait rendu redoutables à leurs concitoyens. Je vis au milieu d'une famille nombreuse que j'aime; je lis, et écris, je médite, je prends plaisir aux jeux de mes petits enfans; leurs occupations les plus simples m'intéressent. Enfin tous mes momens sont remplis, et rien ne manquerait à mon bonheur, sans ce voisinage affreux, qui vient quelquefois porter le trouble et la désolation dans mon coeur.*' [I live like Lærtæ, cultivating my fields, and regretting nothing that I have left behind me. This retirement satisfies both my heart and my vanity; I compare myself to those famous exiles of Athens and of Rome, whom their virtue had rendered formidable to their fellow citizens.—I see myself in the midst of a numerous family, whom I love. I read, I write, I meditate, I take pleasure even in the sports of my grand-children; their most simple oc-

cupations interest me.—In short, every moment of my time is filled up; and nothing would be wanting to my happiness, were it not for this dreadful neighbourhood, which sometimes brings trouble and desolation to my heart.] This letter of de l'Hopital, might form the journal of La Fayette, in all its details and spirit.

In accompanying this '*last of the Romans*' through his extensive farms, visiting his sheep-folds, his cow-stalls, his dairies, (of all of which he was justly proud, and occasionally asking me, whether it was not something in the English style), I was struck with his gracious manner to the peasantry, and to the workmen engaged in the various rustic offices of his domains. He almost always addressed them with '*mon ami*,'—[my friend],—'*mon bon ami*,'—[my good friend],—'*mon cher garçon*,'—[my dear boy]; while '*ma bonne mère*,' [my good mother], and '*ma chère fille*' [my dear girl] were invited to display the delicacies of the cream-pans and cheese-presses, or to parade their turkeys and ducklings for our observation and amusement. And this condescending kindness seems repaid by boundless affection, and respect amounting to veneration. What was once the verger [orchard] of the château, where anciently the feudal seigneur regaled himself in the evening, with the officers of his household, and played chess with his chaplain, is now extended behind the castle, into a noble park, cut out of the luxuriant woods; the trees being so cleared away, and disposed of, as to sprinkle its green and velvet lawn with innumerable clumps of lofty oaks, and fantastic elms. 'This is rather English too,' said general La Fayette; 'but it owes the greater part of its beauty to the taste of our celebrated landscape-painter, Robert, who assisted me in laying out the grounds, and disposing of my wood scenery.'

It was whilst walking by a bright moon-light, in these lovely grounds, that I have listened to their illustrious master, conversing upon almost every subject worthy to engage the mind of a great and good man; sometimes in French, sometimes in English; always with eloquence, fluency, and spirit.

Our mid-day ramble was of a less serious character; for, as the young people were let loose from their studies to accompany us, we issued forth a party of twenty strong. Upon these occasions the *grand prior* took a very distinguished part. He was evidently a popular leader upon such expeditions, and having given orders to a party to go in search of some peculiarly beautiful corn-flowers, which were destined to assist the dinner toilette, the veteran knight marshalled his divisions, and commanded the expedition with an earliness and a gravity, which very evidently showed him as much interested in this predatory warfare upon blooms and odours, as his well-disciplined little troops. Some error, however, in their evolutions, just as the word of command was given, struck the general La Fayette himself, who commanded a halt, and suggested the experience of his counsel to the science of the Maltese tactics. It was curious to observe the representative of the Grand Masters of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, and the general-commandant of the national army of France, manœuvring this little rifle corps, and turning powers that had once their influence over the fate of Europe, against corn-flowers and May sweets.

I was desirous to learn how Bonaparte seemed affected at the moment that general La Fayette, at the head of the deputation who came

to thank him in the name of the chamber for his voluntary abdication, appeared before him. 'We found him,' said general La Fayette, 'upon this occasion, as upon many others, acting out of the ordinary rules of calculation, neither affecting the pathetic dignity of fallen greatness, nor evincing the uncontrollable dejection of disappointed ambition, of hopes crushed, never to revive, and of splendor quenched, never to rekindle. We found him calm and serene:—he received us with a faint, but gracious smile—he spoke with firmness and precision. I think the parallel for this moment was that, when he presented his breast to the troops drawn out against him, on his return from Elba, exclaiming, 'I am your emperor, strike if you will.' There have been splendid traits in the life of this man, not to be reconciled to his other modes of conduct:—his character is out of all ordinary keeping, and to him the doctrine of probabilities could never, in any instance, be applied.'

A few days before this memorable interview, La Fayette had said in the assembly, in answer to Lucien Bonaparte's reproaches, who accused the nation of levity in its conduct towards the emperor, 'Go, tell your brother, that we will *trust him no longer*; we will ourselves undertake the salvation of our country.' And Napoleon had learnt that, if his abdication was not sent to the chamber within one hour, M. La Fayette had resolved to *move for his expulsion*. Yet Bonaparte received this firm opposer of all his views with graciousness and serenity; and it was this resolute and determined foe to his power, who, after this interview, demanded that the liberty and life of Napoleon should be put under the protection of the French people. P. 183-9.

Madame de Genlis was at Paris when I arrived there: but I was told on every side, that she had retired from the world; that she was invisible alike to friends and strangers.—That '*elle s'était jetée dans la religion*!' or that '*elle s'était mise en retraite dans une société de capucines*.' [She had thrown herself into the arms of religion, or that she had retired to a society of capuchins.]—I had despaired therefore of seeing a person, out of whose works I had been educated, and whose name and writings were intimately connected with all my earliest associations of books and literature; when an invitation from this distinguished writer herself brought me at once to her retreat, in her convent of the carmelites—an order, recently restored with more than its original severity, and within whose walls madame de Genlis was retired. As I drove '*aux carmes*,' it is difficult to say, whether madame de Genlis, or madame de La Vallière was uppermost in my imagination.—Adjoining to the gloomy and monastic structure, which incloses the carmelite sisterhood, (in barriers which even royalty is no longer permitted to pass), stands a small edifice appropriated to the lay-guest of this silent and solitary retreat. The pretty garden belonging exclusively to this wing of the convent, is only divided from its great garden by a low wall; and it admits at its extremity the melancholy view of a small chapel or oratory, fatally distinguished by the murder of the bishops and priests, imprisoned there during the reign of Robespierre. Madame de Genlis received me with a kindness, a cordiality, that had all the *naïveté* and freshness of youthful feeling, and youthful vivacity. There was nothing of age in her address or conversation; and vigour, animation, a tone of decision, a rapidity of utterance, spoke the full possession of every feeling and every faculty:

and I found her in the midst of occupations and pursuits, which might startle the industry of youth to undertake or to accomplish.

When I entered her apartment, she was painting flowers in a book, which she called '*herbier sacré*,' [sacred herbal], in which she was copying all the plants mentioned in the Bible. She showed me another volume which she had just finished, full of trophies and tasteful devices, which she called '*l'herbier de reconnaissance*.' [The herbal of gratitude.] 'But I have but little time for such idle amusements,' said madame de Genlis. She was, in fact, then engaged in abridging some ponderous tomes of French memoirs, in writing her '*Journal de la Jeunesse*,' [Journal of Youth], and in preparing for the press her new novel '*Les Battuécas*,' which she has since given to the world.

Her harp was nevertheless well strung and tuned; her piano-forte covered with new music, and when I gave her her lute, to play for me, it did not require the drawing up a single string. All was energy and occupation—It was impossible not to make some observation on such versatility of talent and variety of pursuits.—'Oh! this is nothing,' (said madame de Genlis) 'what I pride myself on, is knowing *twenty trades*, by all of which I could earn my bread.'

She conversed with great earnestness, but with great simplicity, without effort, as without pretension, and laughed heartily at some anecdotes I repeated to her, which were then in circulation in Paris.—When I mentioned the story of her receiving a mysterious pupil, who came veiled to her apartments, whose face had never been seen even by her attendants, she replied—that there was no mystery in the case; that she received two or three unfortunate young people, who had no means of supporting themselves; and to whom she taught the harp, as a mode of subsistence, as she had done to Casemir, now one of the finest harpistes in the world.—I could not help telling her, I believed she had a *passion for educating*; she replied, '*au contraire, cela m'a toujours ennuyé*,' [on the contrary it always wearied me], and added, it was the only means now left her of doing good.

I had been told in Paris, that madame de Genlis had carried on a *secret correspondence* with the late emperor; which is another term for the higher walks of *espionage*. I ventured one day to talk to her on the subject; and she entered on it with great promptitude and frankness. 'Bonaparte,' she said, 'was extremely liberal to literary people—a pension of four thousand francs, per annum, was assigned to all authors and *gens-de-lettres*, whose circumstances admitted of their acceptance of such a gratuity.—He gave me, however, six thousand, and a suite of apartments at the *arsenal*. As I had never spoken to him, never had any intercourse with him whatever, I was struck with this liberality, and asked him, what he expected I should do to merit it? When the question was put to Napoleon, he replied carelessly, 'Let madame de Genlis write me a letter once a month.' As no subject was dictated, I chose literature, but I always abstained from politics. Madame de Genlis added, that though she never had any interview with him, yet on her recommendation he had pensioned five indigent persons of literary talent. P. 232-4.

The lovely madame Jerome Bonaparte (Mrs. Patterson) and ourselves, were the only foreigners present at this literary breakfast. The society of Paris, by its variety, frequently presents the most singular

combinations and unlooked-for associations. I was at a ball one evening, at madame de Villette's, and leaning on Mrs. Patterson's arm, when the prince Paul of Wirtemberg entered into conversation with me: some observations made by Mrs. Patterson induced him to ask her, whether *she was an American?* He was not aware that he asked this question of *the wife of the man, who was since married to his own sister*; the ex-king of Westphalia being now the husband of the princess royal of Wirtemberg. P. 248.

The toilette, under all governments thus supported in France, 'de par le roi,' by 'the united and indivisible republic,' and by the 'ordonnance impériale,' reigns in the present moment with all its ancient supremacy. Intimately connected, as it now appears to be with *legitimacy*, in Europe, blending its interest, in England, with those of *church and state*, and occupying the leisure hours of the majesty of Spain,* it assumes in France the same form, influence, and importance, as when her kings presided over *tortoise-shell combs*, determined, *in council*, on the re-instatement and restitution of a *banished parasol*.

That 'esprit de système;' that submission to rules and regulations to which the French seem to submit, from the necessity of giving *ballast* to their *sail*, by an artificial weight foreign to their own specific lightness, is observed equally in the genius of their toilette, as in their poetry and their dramas. The regulated observances of both are never violated: both are equally deficient in imagination, and both are cultivated in despite of natural impediments. France has never been the land of *poetry* nor of *beauty*, and yet poetry is the passion, and dress the object of the nation.

It is on this point that French women are most fallible, and lose all that is most interesting in their characters, or respectable in their conduct. Here economy ends, and extravagance begins to *know no bounds*. Here all that is frivolous supersedes all that is essential; and all that is light floats to the surface. The merits of the *divine cachemir*; [India shawl]; and the 'joli mouchoir de poche brodé,' [pretty embroidered pocket-handkerchief], rapidly succeed to financial discussions, and political arguments; and, 'combien de cachemires avez-vous, ma chère? [how many India shawls have you, my dear?] is a question, asked with more importance, and considered with more gravity, than would be given to the new political tracts of M. M. Chateaubriand and Fiévée, by the many fair disciples of those grand vizirs of *ultra-stateswomen*.

The elegant produce of the Indian loom is an indispensable object to every French woman, and from the estimation it is held in, one would suppose there was 'magic in the web of it.' I shall never forget the mingled emotions of pity and amazement I excited, in one of my French friends, by assuring her, I never had been *mistress of a cachemir*.

'Ah! seigneur Dieu, mais c'est inconcevable, ma belle,' [Ah! but that is inconceivable], and she added that I ought to buy one, with the produce of my next work. I replied: 'I had rather buy a little estate with it.'

* The king of Spain embroiders with great elegance. Hitherto his works have been confined to the *toilette of the Virgin Mary*, whom he has lately presented with some drapery, embroidered by his own royal hands.

‘Eh, bien, ma chère,’ [well, but my dear], she answered quickly, ‘un cachemir, c’est une terre, n’est-ce pas?’ [a cachemir is the same as an estate, is it not?]

In fact, these valuable and expensive shawls generally do become *heir-looms*, in a French family.

‘Voilà un trait de toilette pour vous, mon enfant,’ [there is an anecdote of the toilette for you, my dear], said madame de Genlis to me one morning, as I entered her pretty apartment, at her carmelite convent, to which she has retired. ‘Here is a trait will amuse you;’ and she related to me the following anecdote.

A little before I had paid my visit, a young gentleman had left this celebrated lady, suddenly cured of a passion for a young married woman, against which madame de Genlis had long and vainly preached. She had argued the matter with him morally, prudentially, sentimentally; she had even, like madame de Sevigné (in listening to her son’s confessions, respecting *Ninon*) tried to get in ‘un petit mot de Dieu:’ [a little word of religion]: but it was all in vain, until a shawl ‘*peau de lapin*’ [of rabbit skin] effected what the charming eloquence of madame de Genlis failed to produce.

He had the night before attended his ‘*chère belle*’ to a ball: she sent him to her carriage for her shawl. He flew to the bearer of the *superbe cachemir*, breathing its kindred roses; but (death to every finer feeling of fashion, taste, and sentiment) the laquais drew from the pocket of the carriage—a shawl *peau de lapin*! ‘Plus de prêchements donc, ma chère comtesse,’ [no more sermons, my dear countess], added the convalescent lover, ‘c’est une affaire finie!’ [the affair is over]. Never can *love* and *rabbit skins* be associated in my imagination; and believe, my dear madam, qu’il n’y a pas d’amour à tenir contre un schall, *peau de lapin*! [no love can stand against a rabbit skin shawl!]

The modern revolutionary mouchoir de poche brodé [embroidered pocket-handkerchief] is a great refinement upon the *royalist pocket-handkerchief* of other times. This elegant expensive little article is as indispensable to a Parisian fine lady, as the *cachemir*; and its effects occasionally seem to equal that of the ‘charmed handkerchief of Othello; which did

‘An Egyptian to his mother give,
To make her amiable.’

A gentleman once accused my charming friend, madame la comtesse d’H**le, of having no lace or embroidery upon her handkerchief. She laughed at his observation: ‘You are in the wrong,’ he replied, ‘car il n’y a rien, qui monte la tête d’un homme, comme le joli mouchoir d’une jolie femme. [For there is nothing which strikes the imagination of a man, more than the pretty handkerchief of a pretty woman.]

Every season has its peculiar *lace*, in France, and the annual festivals of the church are not, even now, observed with more punctuality, than the transition from *point* to *Malines*, or from *Valenciennes* to *blond de fils*, [thread-blond], as their respective seasons recur.

‘Comment donc, monsieur,’ [how, sir], said one of the gentlemen of the court to monsieur D**, looking at his ruffles; ‘vous voilà en point, au mois de Mai!’ [do you wear point-lace in the month of May!]

‘C’est que je suis enrhumé,’ [it is because I have a cold], was the excuse for the *braviness* of lace, which is strictly appropriated to the winter season. P. 214-7

The French *soirée* is literally *an evening at home*. Almost every woman of condition in Paris has a *soirée* once or twice a week. Some ladies are 'at home' every night, or rarely go out except to the court, to the opera, or the theatres.* During the *soirée* visits are received and paid, as on other evenings; for the evening is the usual time for paying *morning visits* in France; and once admitted to their enjoyment, no further invitation is necessary. These little assemblies, given without expense, and resorted to without form, present the state of Parisian society in its most favourable aspect. Neither vanity nor ostentation interfere with their ease and simplicity; there is no gambling, no full dress; the women go in *demi-toilette*; and as, in Paris, illumination is extremely cheap, and the apartments always well lighted, the whole additional expense of the *soirée* is included in tea, or some slight refreshment, served a little before midnight. Society is therefore not a point of competition, but a source of genuine enjoyment. It never leads to ruinous extravagance; it is supported by no newspaper eulogies; it awakens no rivalry, and gives no heart-burnings; and the lady, who entertains, does not estimate the pleasure of her party by the number of titles that fill her rooms, nor by the expensive rarities that crowd her supper-table; for wit, pleasantry, and good conversation hold an uniform ascendant over peers, and pine-apples, chalked floors, and peas at a guinea per quart! P. 216-7.

ART. VIII.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature and Politics.*

ARTIFICIAL CONGELATION.

New theories of chemistry and geology may now be expected to start up from the recent discoveries of Professor Leslie, whose frigorific process, by the combined powers of *absorption* and *evaporation*, acts with uncommon energy and effect. He has lately ascertained, that the congealing power is not confined to the absorbent earths, particularly the porphyritic trap, but that *oatmeal* is capable of producing the same effects, by spreading about two quarts of it on a large dish and putting it in an exhausted receiver, when it will freeze nearly a pint of water in a few minutes; the latter being in a pot of porous earthenware. The fact itself is valuable not only to confectioners and private families at home, but also to residents in the hottest climates. The absorbent powders recover all its qualities, after operation, if dried in the sun, or before a fire.

The interesting experiment, by Professor Leslie, has been successfully repeated by Mr. Stodart. The stone from which he made his absorbent

powder was taken from Salisbury Craigs, near Edinburgh; this was pounded and dried; and with it, under an exhausted receiver, a small body of water was soon frozen. On procuring a very low receiver, and preparing a larger surface of earth, the process was accelerated, a larger body of water being soon converted into a cake of ice. Experiments were made with various other absorbents, of which pipe-clay was the best, equalizing in intensity the whin-trap itself. The latter, however, when in a state of complete decomposition, will probably prove to be the best material for the refrigerating process. This elegant discovery of the Professor promises to prove equally interesting to the philosopher, and important in its application to the common purposes of life, in every climate. Whether required as a luxury in health, or as a necessary in sickness, ice may at all times be readily procured.

At a late meeting of the *Bath Literary and Philosophical Society*, Dr. Wilkinson, in remarking upon a paper pre-

* We had above twenty houses open to us, on different nights in the week, during our residence in Paris, where we were always sure of being graciously received, and of finding good society.

sented by Dr. Wollaston, relative to the theory of the diamond cutting glass, mentioned that he had some micrometers, made by the late Mr. Coventry, where the lines on glass had been so finely drawn, that the cross lines formed a series of squares, so minute, that 25 millions are equal to no more than one square inch.

The plan of a new drag for searching for drowned bodies has been submitted to, and approved by the same society. It consists of an iron rod, at least six feet in length, divided into three parts by two joints; so that, as the sides of rivers are generally sloping, the two extremities of the rod may lie on either bank, while the central part keeps its horizontal position on the bed of the river. To this rod are attached a number of creepers, at the end of small chains, about a foot asunder. This instrument, towed by a small boat, will, it is conceived, completely search the bed and banks of any small river.

AFRICAN EXPEDITION.

Accounts have been received from Lieut. CAMPBELL, on whom devolved the command of the expedition for exploring the Joliba or Niger river, on the death of major Peddie, stating his arrival at the head of the river Nunez, whence he intended proceeding across the mountains towards Bammakoo, the place at which Mr. Park embarked; on the surface of which Lieut. Campbell and his companions are in all probability at this time.

EARTHQUAKES.

The following is an enumeration of earthquakes felt in different parts of the world since the 1st of January last:

- Jan. 13. In the Gulf Stream.
- 17. At Chamouny, in Switzerland.
- 19. At the same place.
- 20. At the same place, and also at Alcocer, in Spain.
- Feb. 11. } At the same place.
- 13. } At the same place.
- 24. } At the same place.
- 18. At Madrid, Barcelona, Lerida, and Saragossa.
- March 11. At Lyons.
- 15. At Chamouny, and Messina, in Sicily.

18. At Madrid, Pampeluna, and several other parts of Spain.

22. At Pampeluna.

25. } At Frascati, Gensano, and

26. } other adjacent places in

Italy. One shock particularly violent.

28. At Chamouny.

30. — ditto.

31. — ditto.

April 1. — ditto.

2. — ditto, very violent, direction from north to south.

(Day not mentioned) At Palermo.

A gentleman at Blackheath has found that alcohol and snow or ice mixed together, form an absorbent of such capacity, that the temperature of snow, when the alcohol is not very strong, is reduced from 32° to 17°.

Orders have gone down to Plymouth for the *Resolute* bell-vessel to repair to Portsmouth, in order that the state of the *Royal George* may be ascertained, preparatory to the removal of her hull, either together or in pieces. Her remains are estimated to be worth 56,000*l.* while the expense of raising them will probably be not more than one-fifth part of the money.

Saturday, the 10th ult. Mr. Moir exhibited a model of a machine before the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, for impelling a vessel against a stream, without the application of sails, oars, or steam.

It is a well established principle, that three united agents concur in the destruction of alimentary substances—air, heat and water; and that, by neutralising one of these agents, the action of the other two is paralyzed. M. Fouque, jun. of Paris, is said to have succeeded in effecting this, by producing a vacuum in an apparatus, simple, easily used, and not expensive. He has made his apparatus of two sizes. One, which is intended to be kept in the kitchen to receive the dishes to be preserved, is made of a square piece of flat stone, thirteen inches in diameter. In this stone a circular groove is cut, and furnished with mastic (or lute;) a

cast-metal is fixed into the grove, and a hole is pierced in the top of the bell of one line in diameter. The other safe consists of a large earthen pot of a thin consistence, around the mouth of which a luted groove is cut, and a cast-metal bell, with a hole in the top fitted into it, in the same manner as in the other safe. When the substances, which it is desired to preserve, have been placed in either of these safes, a little sponge is dipped into spirit of wine, of 33 degrees, then placed in a sauce upon the eatables, and afterwards set fire to by means of a match. A considerable dilation immediately takes place, which expels the atmospheric air; and in order to prevent its return into the apparatus, the hole in the top of the bell is quickly stopt with common wax. A small quantity of atmospheric air may perhaps get again into the bell; but not more, it is probable, than the combustion of the spirit of wine, not yet finished, will suffice to decompose, and convert into carbonic acid gas, the preservative property of which is well known.

NETHERLANDS.

An ingenious mechanic in Holland, invented some years ago, a machine for deepening and scouring canals, rivers, docks, ports, &c., which, at the depth of 12 or 20 feet, cuts up all sand, mud, or hard clay, with the greatest ease. This machine can fill a mud-boat, containing 432 cubic feet, in the space of six or seven minutes with five to eight men, or with one horse power. It equally works at the borders or edges of rivers, the same as in the deep middle stream, clearing all away or deepening as required.—Also, a mill for draining marshes, overflowed lands, &c. which it performs with such celerity, that, for example, in 1770 acres, there are 77, 101,200 square feet, which, multiplied by four, the depth given, contains 308, 404,800 cubic English feet, for the mass of water to be drained; this can be done with ease by one mill in 359 days, whatever the wind may be; and an instance has been known of its emptying the amazing quantity of 320 tons per minute.

GERMANY.

It has been recently ascertained, that fogs contain a great portion of wa-

ter, but not in a condensed state, being kept suspended by the opposed powers of the electric fluid with which it is charged. A convincing proof of this was lately afforded by a curious meteorological occurrence in Westphalia, where the fog being driven by a gentle north-east wind against the trees, the electric fluid was attracted, condensation and congelation took place, and the largest trees were torn up by the roots, by the preponderating weight of ice upon their branches.

Messrs. Kauffman, senior and junior, of Dresden, have exhibited four instruments composing an orchestra, which they call the *Belloneon*, the *Cordalaudion*, the *Automaton Trumpeter*, and the *Harmonicord*. The upper part of the *Belloneon* exhibits a trophy of arms, in the midst of which are placed twenty-four trumpets reversed; and the lower part encloses two kettle-drums with their sticks. It executes flourishes and marches with extraordinary perfection. If it contained other wind instruments, it might be compared with Mälzl's *Panharmonicon*, exhibited some time since in London and in Paris. The *Cordalaudion* produces together and separately the sounds of the piano-forte, and of four flutes, which play with such precision and accuracy, that the illusion is complete. The *Automaton* gives out notes with double sounds. But these instruments, though highly curious, are surpassed by the *Harmonicord*. It is shaped like an upright piano-forte; a cylinder is adapted to it, and turns at a very small distance from the strings, which are the same as those of the piano. By pressing down the keys, which embrace four octaves and a half, the friction is effected. Two pedals serve to make the rotation of the cylinder quicker or slower, and to render the vibration stronger or weaker. Under the hands of Messrs. Kauffmann, this instrument gives out sweeter tones than the Harmonica, and produces a truly celestial harmony.

Mr. Menke of Berlin, has invented a process for converting Mahogany saw-dust into a soft paste, which becomes harder by exposure to the atmosphere, and is susceptible of receiving and retaining the forms given to marble,

wood, and bronze. This substance takes the most beautiful gilding, as well as the colour of bronze. It is made into candelabra, lustres, lamps, vases, statues, and all kinds of ornaments for furniture, which equal in elegance the finest works in bronze, and cost only one-eighth of the price.

In a dissertation on Weights and Measures, and the best means of revising them, lately published by Dr. O. GREGORY in the British Review, we collect that one or other of the following means furnish an invariable natural standard of measure:—

1. The length which must be given to an open tube or pipe, that it may yield a determinate musical sound.

2. The altitude to which a person must ascend vertically, to cause the mercury in the barometer to sink a proportional part of its height.

3. The space through which a body, falling freely from quiescence, will descend in a given time at a given place.

4. The length of a degree of a meridian in a given latitude, or from the length of a quadrant of such meridian.

5. The length of a pendulum that shall vibrate, in a given interval, in a given latitude.

Of these methods, the first three he observes are elegant in theory, but do not admit of sufficient precision in practice to require a deliberate examination. The *fourth* method, by the magnitude of the operations on which it depends, and the variety and utility of the scientific researches which it has tended to improve and perfect, has seduced many into its adoption. The most eminent members of the Paris Academy of Sciences, Lagrange, Laplace, Lalande, Borda, &c. recommended it warmly; and two skilful astronomers, both in theory and practice, MM. Mechain and Delambre, were appointed to conduct the grand geodesic operations which were to issue in this momentous result. Yet it is now well known that the system has failed in France; and Dr. Gregory says, he is decidedly of opinion that it ought to fail.* The

metre adopted by the commission was 443·295936 lines (equivalent to 39·3702 of our inches); but Delambre informs us that "his advice has always been that the metre should be 443·31, or 443 and three-tenths lines, in round numbers." The deduction of a system of measures from the *pendulum* is, in the opinion of Dr. Gregory, much more simple and natural. Is it possible, then, says he, to procure an invariable standard of length by means of pendulums, and that in a way which shall be sufficiently simple for practical purposes? He thinks it is. The seconds' pendulum at London being 30·126 inches, that at the equator would be 38·991; that at the poles, 39·211; that at latitude 40 degrees, 39·082; and at latitude 60 degrees, 39·156: so that the *feet* in the different states of Europe and America could not differ by more than a *five hundred and sixtieth part*: and that difference is easily to be allowed for, whenever it shall be requisite, upon indubitable principles. To him then, it appears, on the whole, that of the various *philosophical* methods which have been proposed to fix a standard of length, or to *recover* a standard supposing it to be lost, that by means of THE PENDULUM is the best. With this view he recommends that the *standard foot*, to be legalized, in future, should agree either with that on Bird's scale made for General Roy, or that on Bird's parliamentary scale of 1758, 12,000,766 inches; either of these being regarded as the 27404th part of the base on Hounslow Heath, and aequal in length to a prismatic plate that vibrates 36469 times in five hours, or, rather, that vibrates a certain number of times, agreeably to the result of experiments to be instituted for that purpose, under the direction of parliament. Instead of dividing this foot into inches, or *twelfth parts*, he recommends that it be divided into *tenths*, and each of these again into tenths, or *hundredths* of a foot. Of course he proposes his measures of capacity and weight to be cubes of his measures of length.

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Mr. W. M. MOSELY, in a paper in the Philosophical Magazine, on the

* This is Dr. Gregory's opinion; but we differ from him, and fear the objection in France and England proceeds

rather from an illiberal opposition to every deduction of philosophy, than from any fault in the system itself. EN.

spots which appeared on the sun during the year 1816, remarks, that the two which passed over the disk in September were the largest which occurred. They were each surrounded by an umbra, and preserved nearly the same relative position, with respect to each other, during their progress over the disk; their course being parallel with and near to the sun's equator. The larger of the two occupied about 1-25th part of the sun's diameter. As these maculæ were very distinctly marked with an opaque centre, and were encompassed by an umbra of considerable magnitude, they afforded a good opportunity of comparing their appearance with the theory of Dr. Wilson of Glasgow. He conceived these maculæ to consist of vast cavities in the substance of the sun; that the dark nucleus in the middle was the bottom or deep part of the cavity; and that the nebulous circle or umbra was produced by light faintly reflected from the sloping sides for some depth below the orifice. The appearances, however, which attended the spots in September last, did not correspond with the phenomena observed by Dr. Wilson. Mr. Mosely could not discover that the nucleus ever touched the edge of the umbra; nor did the nebulous circle contract; as the spots receded from the one limb, or approached the other in their passage, further than might be attributed to the oblique position of objects placed on the surface. These spots did not re-appear with the next revolution of the sun, nor did the disk of the sun present any thing remarkable till the middle of October; when, on the 16th, two small spots moving in a line were faintly seen near the centre. Having traversed the disk almost in a line, the foremost passed the western limb on the 21st, at an angle of about *forty-three degrees* south of the equator. On November 1st, two spots were seen, the one a little south of the sun's equator, and not far from the line of its axis; and another somewhat larger in size, north of the equator, and rather nearer to the line of the poles. On the following day the southern spot had advanced, but in an *oblique direction*; and that to the north had passed over a space more than equal to one-fourth of the diameter of the disk, and was stationed about half-way between the centre and

western limb. It is impossible to assign any philosophical reason for this accelerated motion; but it is obvious, from this example, as well as from the circumstances noticed in October, as above related, that the spots are *floating substances, not adhering to the surface of the sun*; otherwise they would not deviate far from the line pursued by the revolution of its axis. Few, if any, of the spots which appeared during the last year, are to be considered of large size; nor were there many surrounded with an umbra, which is usually the case with those of large dimensions.

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From the *Edinburgh Magazine*, No. 3.
ORIGIN OF THE TERMS WHIG AND TORY.

I. "This year (says Hume, Hist. Eng. 1686,) is remarkable for being the epoch of the well-known epithets of *Whig* and *Tory*, by which, and sometimes without any material difference, this island has been so long divided.—The court party reproached their antagonists with their affinity to the fanatical conventiclers in Scotland, who were known by the name of *Whigs*; the country party found a resemblance between the courtiers and popish banditti in Ireland, to whom the appellation of *Tory* was affixed. And after this manner, these foolish terms of reproach came into public and general use; and even at present, seem not nearer their end than when they were first invented."

II. Mr. Laing takes no notice of the term *Tory*.—but of *Whig*, he gives the following as the origin:—

"Argyle and Lothian had begun an insurrection in the Highlands," and so forth. "The expedition was termed the *Whigamores' inroad*, from a word employed by these western peasants in driving horses; and the name, transferred in the succeeding reign to the opponents of the court, is still preserved and cherished by the Whigs, as the genuine descendants of the covenanting Scots."^{*}

III. Bailey, in his dictionary, gives the following:—

"WHIG (Sax.) whey, butter-milk, or very small beer,"—again,

* For a further account of the term "Whigamore," see Burnet, as quoted in Johnson's Dictionary.—EDIT.

"A **White**—first applied to those in Scotland who kept their meetings in the fields, their common food being *sour-milk*,*—a nickname given to those who were against the court interest in the times of king Charles and James II, and to such as were for it in succeeding reigns."

With regard to *Tory*, he says,

"A word first used by the protestants in Ireland, to signify those *Irish* common robbers and murderers, who stood outlawed for robbery and murder; now a nickname to such as call themselves high church men, or to the partizans of the Chevalier de St. George."

IV. Johnson, again, has "**White** (Sax.) 1. Whey.—2. The name of a faction,"—and as to *Tory*, he supposes it to be derived from an *Irish* word, signifying a savage.—"One who adheres to the ancient constitution of the state, and the apostolical hierarchy of the church of England—opposed to a *Whig*."

Torbree is the *Irish* appellation for a person who seizes by force, and without the intervention of law, what, whether really so or not, he alleges to be his property.

V. Daniel Defoe, in No. 75 of Vol. VII. of his "Review of the British Nation," (1709) gives the following history of these terms:—

"The word *Tory* is *Irish*, and was first made use of in Ireland, in the time of Elizabeth's wars there. It signified a kind of robbers, who being listed in

* In diuerent parts of Scotland the term *Whig* is still commonly applied to a sort of sour liquid which is obtained from milk or cream. The whig is taken from cream after it has been collected six or eight days for a *kirning*, and is drawn off by a spiggot from the bottom of the cask or can.—It is also taken from sour-milk, when in a coagulated state, or what the Scotch call *lappert milk*, being merely the thin watery substance which is separated from the curd on stirring it about. The whig, both of sour milk and cream, is extremely tart to the taste. It is not, so far as we know, used in any way for food by the common people. Might not this term have been first applied to the covenanters, in derision of their austere manners and *unpalatable* opinions.—ED17.

neither army, prayed in general upon their country, without distinction of English or *Irish*.

"In the *Irish* massacre in 1641, you had them in great numbers, assistant in every thing that was bloody and villainous, and particularly when humanity prevailed upon some of the papists to preserve protestant relations; these were such as chose to butcher brothers and sisters, fathers and mothers, and dearest friends and nearest relations,—and these were called *Tories*."

"In England, about the year 1680, a party of men appeared among us, who, though pretended protestants, yet applied themselves to the ruin and destruction of their country. They quickly got the name of *Tories*. Their real godfather, who gave them the name, was *Titus Oates*; and the occasion as follows: The author of this happened to be present. There was a meeting of some people in the city, upon the occasion of the discovery of some attempt to stife the evidence of the witnesses, (about the popish plot) and tampering with Bedlow and Stephen Dugdale.—Among the discourse, Mr. Bedlow said, he had letters from Ireland, that there were some *Tories* to be brought over hither, who were privately to murder Dr. Oates and the said Bedlow."

"The Doctor, whose zeal was very hot, could never hear any man talk after this against the plot, or against the witnesses, but he thought he was one of these *Tories*, and called almost every man who opposed him in discourse—a *Tory*; till at last the word *Tory* became popular, and they owned it; just as they do now the name '*high-flyer*.'"

"As to the word *Whig*, it is *Scots*. The use of it began there, when the western men, called *Cameronians*, took arms frequently for their religion.—*Whig* was a word used in those parts for a kind of liquor the western Highlandmen used to drink, the composition of which I do not remember, but so became common to these people who drank it. These men took up arms about the year 1681, being the insurrection at Bothwell Bridge. The duke of Monmouth, then in favour here, was sent against them by king Charles and defeated them. At his return, instead of thanks for his good service, he found

himself ill treated for using them mercifully. And Lauderdale told Charles, *with an oath*, that the duke had been so civil to the *Whigs*, because he was a *Whig* himself in his heart. This made it a court word, and in a little while all the friends and followers of the duke began to be called *Whigs*; and they, as the other party did by the word *Tory*, took it freely enough to themselves.

STIRIA.

Edinburgh, May 1817.

FRANCE.

France is now, if we may judge from the following paragraph, becoming "the classic land of liberty:"—the beneficent wisdom of the government pervades the whole, and takes literature under its immediate protection; henceforth every *morceau* of that frequently ludicrously-pathetic species of composition, called epitaphs, must be polished by the police. The dead, in future, will not be permitted to admonish the living, contrary to grammar and the principles of the *sainte alliance*; but to the point:—"The counsellor of state, prefect of the Seine, considering that it is necessary to prevent the engraving on any funeral monument, erected at the expense of families, in the cemeteries of Paris, any inscription or epitaph contrary to order or public propriety, (*convenances publiques*); and wishing to prevent also that the expression of the pious and touching regrets of those who erect the monuments should be disfigured by the ignorance or the negligence of those who construct them has decreed, that from the first of June, 1817, there shall not be engraved, on any funeral monument in the cemeteries, any inscription or epitaph, without its having been previously submitted to the inspection of a special commissioner, appointed by the prefect; consequently, a copy of each inscription proposed must be remitted by the families to the keepers of the cemeteries, who will send it to the prefect of the Seine; and, when it shall have been approved, the keepers will take care to see it literally and correctly engraved on the monument." It might be imagined, that nothing in the above was intended beyond the improvement of elegant literature—no such thing: the sole object was to prevent the expression of those feelings which the

death of victims inspired in their relatives and friends!

ITALY.

General Count Camillo Borgia lately returned to Naples from Africa, after having been engaged in antiquarian researches for nearly two years in the neighbourhood of Tunia. He established such an interest with the Bey and his ministers, as to obtain an unqualified permission to examine the antiquities of that country. He caused considerable excavations in various places; especially on the site of the ancient Carthage, and at Utica; and the general result of his labours has been, that, along the coast, and in the interior, he has examined the ruins of more than 200 cities and towns, and made copies and drawings of 400 ancient inscriptions and remains, hitherto unpublished and unknown. Among the inscriptions are some which appear to be in the ancient Punic language. The most important of the public buildings which have been discovered, is a Temple at Utica, containing 80 columns of oriental granite, and a statue of the goddess Flora. He is at Naples, employed in arranging his materials, and preparing the result of his discoveries for the press.

Letters from Naples mention an extraordinary eruption of Mount *Etna*, and announce, that the little town of Nicosi has been covered with lava, and that fears were entertained even for the town of Catanea.

GERMANY.

M. COLLIN, editor of the Literary Journal of Vienna, is appointed tutor to Prince Napoleon.

ECONOMY OF FRENCH COOKERY.

To the Editor of the *Monthly Mag. Meaux*, in France, Dec. 11, 1816.

SIR—IN this neighbourhood nearly all the cottagers are land-owners, that is, possess from half an acre to five acres, and the cultivation of these little spots occupies their time, and the produce keeps their families. Three-fifths of the land is planted with vines, hence we may conclude the general distress in this season of scarcity. To alleviate it a little, the crop of potatoes is every where abundant, and poor families boil

Half a-peck of potatoes, a couple of cabbages, and half a pound of bacon, which forms their breakfast, dinner, and supper. It is unnecessary to state the quality of the soup made from such materials, a little improved by two or three carrots and a roasted onion. Such is their fare, and must be during the winter. Labour is also extremely cheap, a man will go thirty miles with his horse and cart, laden both ways, for 7s. sterling; and a master gardener earns only 18d. *per diem*, providing his own food. Female labour is from 5d. to 7 1-2d per day; the hire of a horse for work, (a sort of galloway,) is 30 sous, (15d;) and of an ass, 7 1-2d. It is an old adage, that three Frenchmen would live where one Englishman would starve—it is very true, and live well. An Englishman will broil a stake and lose all the fine delicious juice in the fire; a Frenchman will boil half the quantity with vegetables, have good broth for three persons, and meat enough for all; or he will fry it, and, with the juice of the meat left in the frying pan, he will make a better soup than is frequently to be found in English coffee-houses at a shilling per bason. In a French kitchen, whether great or small, nothing is wasted; and a French cook would think it the sin against the Holy Ghost, from which even the Pope would not absolve him, were he to waste or sell his dripping.

We say, the French have no word to express comfort; true, but they have the idea and practice it, while we too often content ourselves with the name; for instance, a poor woman who keeps a stall in a market from morning to night, how miserable is her situation in England, she never has a comfortable meal; look at a French market-woman, she has a morsel of meat and a few vegetables, perhaps only two ounces of bacon, beef, or mutton; she has a little earthen furnace like a flower pot, and a penny-worth of charcoal, she stews her morsel at her feet in an earthen sauce-pan, and with a little bread has two or three warm comfortable meals, while the charcoal keeps her feet warm all day. Can we doubt then as to the relative degree of comfort enjoyed by the French and English women!

In England, if a poor man has no home to dress his victuals, he buys a morsel of indifferent meat at the mar-

ket, and takes it to a public house to dress, where he spends his time and his money, and forms bad connexions. In the parts of Paris, inhabited by the labouring classes, women have stalls with frying pans, gridirons, chops, herrings, potatoes, (fried,) &c. &c. where, for two-pence, a poor man may make a tolerable repast. The gridiron is on the fire, and, for one half-penny beyond the cost of the meat, or fish, it is nicely fried. The writer of this article has frequently stood by and admired the dexterity, the cleanliness, and economy of these persons: he has left the scene, gone to a *restaurant's*, ordered the same things for his dinner, costing him three shillings, and found them neither so well dressed nor so well served. As England suffers from scarcity, these hints, circulated by the Monthly Magazine, may produce much comfort amongst the lower classes; and, in keeping persons from public houses, where they now are often obliged to go from necessity, public morals will, undoubtedly, be benefitted. The scheme would take at first from its novelty, and be continued from its evident utility, as persons would thus make a better meal for three-pence than they now do often for a shilling.

S. T. Y.

XERXES.

If we were to credit all that is said about Xerxes, by high historians, we cannot feel astonished at his cruelties and follies, and at the same time believe him to be an example of humanity and of every heroic excellence. Seneca, in his noble piece, *De Ira*, informs us that an old man, named Pythius, had five sons, whom Xerxes ordered to the wars. The father begged one for the support of his age. The monarch gave him his choice; but immediately commanded the son who was selected to be cut asunder, and the parts to be laid on each side of the high way, for the expiation of his army. So much for the barbarity of the man; now for his folly. He commanded the sea to be beaten with rods, and cauterized with hot irons; and he wrote a letter to Mount Athes. Such are the tales and contemptible incongruities foisted upon mankind, under the name of history—read in the first universities in the world; noted, illustrated, and commented upon by the learned, and, with

most simple faith, credited by many, like the stories invented about Napoleon, to justify the late wars and the treatment of him. There are many other stories about this celebrated personage, Xerxes—such as his army drinking up rivers, leaving the Lissus, the Chidorus, and even the Scamander dry—and, above all, the story related of the cattle of the prodigious army of this prodigious king, being so numerous, that they exhausted a lake of five miles in circumference. Yet this is history.

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FRANCE.

A translation into French of the "Tales of My Landlord," has just been published at Paris, in 4 vols. 12mo.

No less than five new epic poems are announced as being soon to enrich the literature of France. Their titles are *Philip-Augustus*, by Mr. Percival-Grandmaison; *The Maccabees*, by Mr. Raynouard; *The Holy War*, by Mr. Fontanes. *Tasso*, by Mr. Campenon; and *Richard*, by Madame de Stael.

The catalogue of the late Leipzig Easter Fair occupies 330 octavo pages, being considerably thicker than of late years—a proof of the favourable influence of the present pacific state of affairs upon the branches of trade connected with literature and the sciences.

SIR JOHN SINCLAIR announces his long desired Code of Agriculture, founded on all the publications of the board, and intended to comprise a summary of their results. The following are the outlines of his plan:—

1. To consider those "Preliminary points," to which a farmer ought to attend, otherwise he can never expect to carry on, in a useful manner, any system of husbandry. These particulars are, climate; soil; subsoil; elevation; aspect; situation; tenure, whether in property or on lease; rent; burdens on; and size of the farms.

2. To inquire into the nature of "Those means of cultivation, which are essential to insure its success;" these are capital; regular accounts; arrangement of agricultural labour; farm servants; labourers in husbandry; live stock; implements; agricultural

buildings; command of water; divisions of fields; and farm roads.

3. To point out "The various modes of improving land," by cultivating wastes; inclosing; draining; manuring; paring and burning; fallowing; weeding; irrigation; flooding; warping; embanking; and planting.

4. To explain "The various modes of occupying land," in arable culture; grass; woods; gardens; and orchards; and,

5. To offer some general remarks on "The means of improving a country;" by diffusing information; by removing obstacles to improvement; and, by positive encouragement.

The work is intended to form a large volume in octavo, and it will be published early in August.

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MR. ARTHUR YOUNG, is preparing for the press, *The Elements of the Practice of Agriculture*, containing experiments and observations made during a period of fifty years. It appears that Mr. Young, now blind, and verging on his eightieth year, has published between the years 1767 and the late tenth edition of his Farmer's Kalendar, no less than THIRTY-THREE several works.

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In September will be published, in double columns octavo, Vol. I. Part I. of the EDINBURGH GAZETTEER, or GEOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY, comprising a complete body of geography, physical, political, statistical, and commercial.

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A work on Biblical Criticism on the Books of the Old Testament; and translations of sacred songs, with notes, critical and explanatory, by SAMUEL HORSLEY, LL.D. F.R.S. F.A.S. late lord bishop of St. Asaph, is preparing for publication.

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The continuation, in octavo, with engravings, is printing, of *Travels in South America*, by Messrs. HUMBOLDT and BONPLAND; translated from the French, under the superintendence of M. Humboldt, by HELEN MARIA WILLIAMS.

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The Elements of History and Geography, ancient and modern, exemplified and illustrated by the principles of

chronology; containing a connected view of the origin, progress, decline, and fall, of the several states and kingdoms, from the creation to the present time; by the Rev. J. Joyce; will soon be published, in two volumes, octavo, with several maps.

Speedily will be published, in two volumes octavo, *Lectures on the History of Ancient and Modern Literature*, translated from the German of FRED. SCHLEGEL, with notes, and an introduction, by the translator.

Bath Literary and Philosophical Society—March 17.—Mrs. Groce favoured the Society with some specimens of the *Cicada mannaferens*, or locust of New South Wales, and likewise of the wild honey or manna deposited by that animal on a large forest tree called the *Eucalyptus*. This insect continues but a short time in its winged state; it was first observed in November, 1800, by Colonel Paterson, in the pupa state, and on the same day it appeared with its wings through an opening in the bark of the outer covering: it was then in a very weak state, and slowly left its original abode. The rapidity with which the insect enlarges after this is surprising; in the course of a few hours it can fly to the top of the tallest *eucalyptus*, which generally grows to the height of sixty or seventy feet. On this tree Colonel Paterson first discovered the manna in great quantities, apparently produced by these insects. It may be collected both in a liquid and in a saccharine state: the inhabitants gathered it, and used it for some time as sugar, but soon discovered that it possessed in some degree the quality of manna. The extraordinary noise these little creatures make is deserving of notice: the males first begin with a note similar to that of the land-rail, and repeat it for several times; at length the females join, when the combination of notes exactly resembles the noise of grinding knives or razors; and hence the insect is popularly known by the name of the razor-grinder. It makes its appearance about the end of November, and early in January deposits its eggs in the ground. The larva is perfect in September, when it is formed into the pupa, in which state it remains until No-

vember. There is a species of the insect in New South Wales of the same appearance, and which makes the same sort of noise, but produces no manna.

A new census has been taken of the population of Paris, which has been found to exceed 860,000, being 20,000 more than London within the bills of mortality

PERPETUAL MOTION.

To the many supposed solutions of the problem of perpetual motion, another has just been added by a M. Louis of Valence, formerly captain in the Neapolitan service. He has found, he says, "means to raise a column of water strong enough to force another to the same height. Thus, when the impulse is once given, this machine will perpetually retain its action, if there exists a fluid which does not lose by evaporation; or a material indestructible by use. One may however employ a quantity of water sufficient in play for several years. This same machine may be employed as the impelling power, for the production of various kinds of regular motions. The inventor proposes to adopt a clepsydra to it, and he is convinced, that by means of a basin or reservoir, a private house might derive various advantages from it.

STEAM-BOATS.

The regulations recommended by the committee of the house of Commons appointed to consider of the means of preventing the mischief arising from explosion on board Steam-boats are as follows:—

That all steam-packets carrying passengers for hire should be registered at the port nearest the place from or to which they proceed.

That all boilers belonging to the engines by which such vessel shall be worked should be composed of wrought iron or copper.

That every boiler on board such steam-packet should, previous to the packet being used for the conveyance of passengers, be submitted to the inspection of a skilful engineer, or other person conversant with the subject, who should ascertain, by trial, the strength of such boiler, and should certify his opinion of its sufficient strength, and of the secu-

urity with which it might be employed to the extent proposed.

That every such boiler should be provided with two sufficient safety valves, one of which should be inaccessible to the engineman, and the other accessible both to him and to the persons on board, the packet.

That the inspector shall examine such safety valves, and shall certify what is

the pressure at which such safety valves shall open, which pressure shall not exceed one third of that by which the boiler has been proved, nor one-sixth of that which by calculation it shall be reckoned able to sustain.

That a penalty should be inflicted on any person placing additional weight on either of the safety valves.

Domestic Literature and Science.

About the middle of October, Judge COOPER proposes to commence his Geological and Mineralogical Lectures in the University of Pennsylvania. They will consist of the following parts:

1. Introductory Lecture.
2. On the Globe of the Earth: on the general properties of Mineral Substances; specific gravity, hardness, fracture, crystallization, colour, &c.
3. On the rocks called *Primitive*, and their component parts.
4. On the Substances found in *Primitive* rocks.
5. On the rocks termed *Transition*, and their component parts.
6. On the Substances found in *Transition* rocks.
7. On the rocks termed *Secondary*.
8. On the Substances found in *Secondary* rocks.
9. On *Alluvial Formations*.
10. On *Basins*. The great Basin of the Mississippi. The Basin at Richmond, Virginia. The Paris Basin. The London Basin. The Isle of Wight Basin.
11. On *Volcanic Formations*. On *Floetz Trap*.
12. On *Organic Remains*.

This course of Mineralogy, which, as the reader will see, is very different in its outline from any hitherto attempted, will be illustrated by appropriate specimens, Judge Cooper's cabinet, being now, the best adapted for the purpose, of any in the United States, colonel Gibbs's excepted. To which gentleman, and Mr. Maclure, Judge Cooper expresses his obligations for the kind assistance they have afforded him in this respect.

This collection of between three and four thousand specimens, consists of his own collection; of the late Rev. Mr. Melsheimer's, and of M. Godon's.

It is expected the Course will occupy

between two and three months, at three Lectures a week. Tickets 15 dollars.

The Chemical Lectures of the same professor will begin in the University at the usual time in November next.

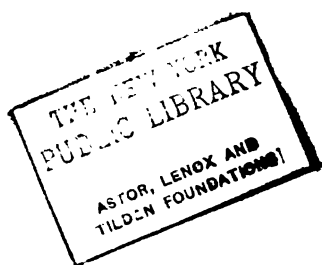
Judge Cooper is preparing Notes for new editions of Peere Williams's *Chancery Reports*; and Brown's *Treatise on Civil and Admiralty Law*.

CUVIER'S THEORY OF THE EARTH.

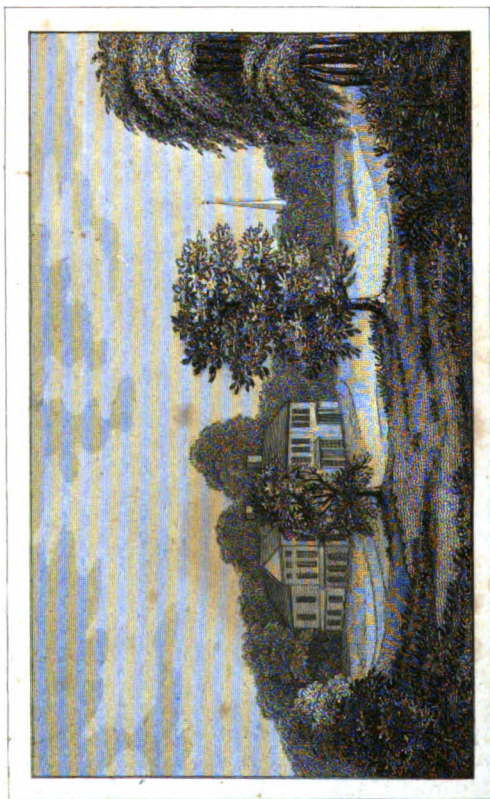
It is with great pleasure we announce, that Kirk & Mercein, of New York, have in press one of the most important and interesting books with which science has been enriched in modern days. It is the third edition of Cuvier's *Essay on the Theory of the Earth*, with ample Notes, by professor Jameson, nearly equal in extent to the original work. The third edition has lately issued from the London press (in May or June last.) It contains a new plate, in addition to the three former ones of the older editions, viz, the *Ornithocephalus*, found near Aichstedt, in Germany. Although this is a publication replete with profound views of science, it is sufficiently interesting and entertaining to repay the time bestowed on it by the general reader. Indeed, in the present day, no man is entitled to be considered as well read in fashionable literature, who has not bestowed some time on the wonderful progress made within these ten years in the science of Geology. We strongly recommend this work to our readers.

BIGELOW'S BOTANY.

A specimen of the plates of the first number of professor Bigelow's work on *Medical Botany*, has arrived in Philadelphia. It is by no means inferior to professor Barton's. We wait for the letter press, before we can give any account of the work, which seems to be of good promise. C.



THE GARDEN OF THE FUTURE.



Published by M. Thomas

VIEW OF THE GARDEN OF THE FUTURE.

*Engraved for the ANALYTIC MAGAZINE by J. G. Smith
from a Drawing by J. G. Smith and J. G. Smith
Presented to an American Society*

THE ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1817.

THE EDGEWORTH FAMILY.

ART. I.—[The literary merit of the Edgeworth family generally, and the successful efforts of Maria Edgeworth in particular, to promote pure morals and engaging manners, by means of the most popular species of literary composition, have rendered the name interesting to modern readers of almost every description. The mechanical experiments of the father—the joint treatise of the family, on practical education—and the lively descriptions of character and manners, the plain and practical morality, the useful as well as the amusing tendency of Miss Edgeworth's novels,—have given to the family a title to notice, which the following brief essay is too scanty to satisfy. In the next number, we hope to give a fuller account of Mr. Edgeworth and his family, with an outline of the peculiar merit which characterises their literary productions.] E.D.

FEW families are more distinguished, even in this age of authorship, for their literary talents, and the attractions they have thrown round the cause of pure taste and sound morals, than that of the Edgeworths. Richard Lovel Edgeworth the father, who, to the regret of the wise and good, is lately deceased, was the author of several scientific papers published in the Philosophical Journals, most of which had a practical bearing upon the comforts and conveniences of life; and in conjunction with his daughter Maria, has written many valuable works for the use of young persons, which, in real benefit to that part of the community, have never been surpassed.

Miss Maria Edgeworth his eldest daughter, possesses reputation as a profound and successful delineator of life and manners, and as a pure and practical moralist, to which no praise of ours can add. Her works which are chiefly novels, or rather moral tales written in a very popular and captivating style, are too well known, both in this country and Great Britain, to require enumeration. Her mother, and her brother, Mr. Sheyd Edgeworth, are also advantageously known in the literary republic; the former as the author of several novels of reputation, and the latter by his life of the Abbe Edgeworth, the celebrated confessor of Lewis XVI, and a relation of the family.

When we consider the incalculable benefit that writings, such as those of the Edgeworth's have been to society, by adding to and improving their physical comforts, refining taste, and polishing the manners, and, what is far more important, by inculcating

the purest doctrines of morality, in a manner the most pleasing, and intelligible to all classes of society; we cannot but be struck with the vastly superior claims to our respect and gratitude, such writers have over the mass of their brethren. The influence, indeed, and controul which men of letters possess over the community, has never been duly estimated. "Literature" (says a distinguished writer) "is the main engine by which civil society must be supported or overthrown." And though we may not agree with him in the full extent of the remark, yet it cannot be denied, that in an enlightened community, and more especially under a republican form of government, the destinies of the people do most intimately depend upon their literary taste. What care then ought not to be taken, lest this mighty engine should be perverted to the injury of society; and if those who add to the extent of a country, or raise her military reputation, obtain civic crowns, and public largesses, what do they not deserve, whose writings operate in favour of their best interest and their wisest institutions.

The following extracts from the Journal of a late traveller in Ireland, show that this enlightened family are not less estimable in private life, than they are respectable for their literary powers.—

'From none to whom I had been introduced, did I meet with a more hospitable reception than from Mr. Edgeworth, of Edgeworth town, of whom; and his daughter Maria, to whom I had also a letter of introduction, I had heard and read so much. As the covetous man rejoices in the prospect of adding to his stores; and the pious man at the prospect of those meetings, where the fire of devotion will be made to burn more purely, in hopes of the feast of reason and the flow of souls, I approached Edgeworth's town, so much of late the abode of the muses.

'Mr. Edgeworth and his daughter, being about to take an airing in the carriage when I called, which was soon after breakfast, and a very fine day, asked me to accompany them, to which I readily assented, and was much pleased with their remarks on the objects which occurred in the course of our ride.

'When we returned from our ride, I found the rector of the parish, the Roman Catholic priest, and the Presbyterian clergyman had been invited to dine, and that there might be no preference shown to one clergyman before another at dinner, Mr. Edgeworth said grace himself. In this hospitable mansion, the favourite abode of the muses, the rendezvous of the wise and good, Papists and Protestants agree. Miss Edgeworth joined in the conversation, and as may well be supposed, the author of *Castle Rackrent*, *Irish Bulls*, the *Absentee*, &c. &c. served much to enliven and inform it. I had heard much of Miss Edgeworth, and knew that she and her father had taken an extensive view of the vast edifice of human knowledge, but found that not one half of her numerous amiable accomplishments had been told me.—Of her it may be said, "*Omne quod tetigit ornavit.*"

'When I mentioned that having orreries, armillary spheres, globes, and the apparatus necessary for giving some idea of the various branches of experimental philosophy, various persons are employed in giving lessons on these subjects at ladies' boarding schools, Miss Edgeworth

seemed not displeased, as she and her father in their Letters on Education, had recommended something of the kind.

‘As Mr. Edgeworth’s children are all instructed at home, the system of education recommended to others is practised in his own family. I observed three of his daughters, fine little girls, busily employed in sewing a covering of patches of various colours for a poor family in the vicinity, who had once been servants in the house. As soon as the work should be finished, the girls were themselves to make the present; and to this period I found them looking forward with more than ordinary pleasure.

‘The children are never long confined at one time; their hours being spent alternately in diligence and play. Indeed, children should seldom be idle, but constantly employed in exercising either the mind or body.

‘Whatever be the result of the system of education which Mr. Edgeworth and his daughter have recommended, I must say, I never saw such marks of filial regard, parental affection, and domestic happiness as at this house. To reside at it, is to see almost realised such scenes of happiness as no where exist, but are sometimes presented in the descriptions of enchanted castles: Miss Edgeworth is none of those, as some would make us believe, who write merely for bread, she having an independent fortune, besides what she must now make by the rapid sale of her works. By such books as those of Miss Edgeworth, booksellers fatten, and men are made wiser and better. It is needless to mention, that Mrs. Edgeworth is also a successful author, having published the novel, or what you choose to call it; “The good Wife.”—*Hall’s Travels in Ireland*, vol. II. p. 12, &c.

The vignette prefixed to this number, is from a drawing by Miss Honora Edgeworth, which was sent by her to a lady in this country. It represents the family residence at Edgeworth town, spoken of in the preceding extracts. The spire seen at a distance among the foliage, was designed by the late Mr. Edgeworth. In a letter received with the drawing from Miss Maria Edgeworth, it is mentioned that this spire is of iron, and was raised in eighteen minutes.

ART. II. *Life of OMAR BASHAW, Dey of Algiers, in a letter to an officer of the United States army.*

Algiers, 8th March, 1817.

MY DEAR SIR,

RECOLLECTING that you once testified a desire to learn such particulars of the life and character of the distinguished chief who rules this barbarous empire as could be obtained, I send you the following, which I have drawn from the best sources within my power.

It is hardly necessary to remark to you, that according to the constitution of this regency, none but foreigners are eligible to fill any of the high offices of state. The corps of Turks from which they are selected, is kept in existence by constant importations of recruits from the Levant, and which are generally the sweepings

of the prisons, and of the lowest orders of men in those barbarous countries. On arriving here, they are enrolled as common soldiers, and depend upon their merit, or accidents for promotion. Therefore, the incidents in the life of an obscure adventurer would probably afford little of interest if they could be known. But when genius extricates itself from this chaos of ignorance and obscurity, and occupies with credit a conspicuous part in the affairs of men, the individual possessing it, becomes worthy of our notice, and inquiry into his character and actions.

Omar Bashaw, Dey of Algiers, was born in the classical island of Mitylene, the ancient Lesbos, and is now about forty-three years of age. It is said that his family are renegade Greeks. In stature he is about five feet ten or eleven inches, robust, active, and well made. His complexion is dark, with a thick shining black beard silvered with gray, and his features are manly, and regular; his countenance thoughtful; when in good humour, agreeable and prepossessing; when displeased, dark and gloomy. He has very fine black eyes, but they appear to meet those of any other person with reluctance even in conversation. His manner is always dignified, sometimes cordial and friendly, and he never has been known to lose the equilibrium of his temper on any occasion. He speaks with hesitation and apparent embarrassment: it would seem that his pride does not hide from him the sentiment of his own ignorance. He seems to be a man of quick perception, strong natural good sense, and great decision of character. In private life he is said to be a man of great moderation and strict morals, according to the rules of the faith which he professes. He has but one wife and three children, with them he passes all his leisure time in great apparent domestic happiness. Since he rose to sovereign power, he has given several proofs of friendship and gratitude, and I have not heard him accused of an instance of individual injustice.

Omar came to this country about twenty years since, in company with an elder brother, as common adventurers. His brother appears to have been a man of merit, as he early obtained the lucrative post of *Kalife*, or intendant of one of the provinces. As Omar was always with him, he attained an accurate knowledge of the internal affairs of the regency; and the war with Tunis, and the troubles and insurrections, with which Algiers was at that time agitated, gave him ample opportunities of establishing his reputation as a brave and intelligent warrior. About ten years ago his brother became suspected, and was murdered by order of Achmet Bashaw. Omar escaped by taking refuge in the barracks, when he was protected by the soldiers, with whom he seems to have been always a favourite. Achmet perished shortly after, and was succeeded by Ali, who after a short reign of a few months, gave place to Hadgi Ali Bashaw, who is notorious for his sanguinary cruelty, and for his declaration of war against the United States. This chief raised Omar to the important post of aga, or commander-in-chief. In this capacity he distinguished himself by the vigour of

his administration; and particularly by quelling a rebellion of the Bey of Oran, which threatened the extinction of the government of the Turks in Algiers. While acting in this quality he is accused of great and unnecessary cruelty, particularly in the affair of Oran. The accusation is probably not unfounded, but I should rather suppose it a necessary effect of the barbarous manners and character of these people, than of a ferocious propensity in him. Even the modern history of civilized nations, furnishes more instances of cruelty and violence, than of moderation and justice. But there are some circumstances relative to the elevation of Omar, which do not appear to admit of the same excuse, and which chill the blood with horror. While he was absent in the interior, the tyrant Hadgi Ali was murdered, his capricious cruelties having become insupportable. An express was sent to the aga, who immediately returned to Algiers, and was offered the purple by unanimous consent; and which he could then have accepted without a crime. For some reasons, which are not publicly known, he refused, and insisted upon investing the then *Hasnagée*, or prime minister with the sovereign authority. Little is known of this personage, except that he was a moderate just man, universally esteemed, and far advanced in age. He, also refused, until he was informed that he must either reign or perish. Fourteen days afterwards, this old man was murdered, and the Aga seated in his place. Hadgi Ali, though a decrepid old man indulged in the excessive use of spirits and opium, and kept a numerous seraglio. These women were respected during the ephemeral reign of his immediate successor. By order of Omar they were all put to death! It is difficult to assign any plausible reason for such a gratuitous act of barbarous cruelty. Though his subsequent conduct has been blameless, many persons are yet in doubt as to his real character.

The folly and presumption of Hadgi Ali Bashaw had involved Algiers in an open war with the United States, and with Holland; the Ottoman flag had been insulted, and the relations of the regency with France, and Spain, had been rendered doubtful. The part which Omar had to act, was therefore a very difficult and delicate one. What remains for me to say of this remarkable personage, consists principally of the political epochs of his reign, which have rapidly succeeded each other, have fairly tested his capacity, and on the whole, have exhibited him to the world in a light not less advantageous than conspicuous.

From the consideration in which this regency has been held by Europe from time immemorial, it is not surprising that the Algerines should attach a great degree of importance to their power and believe that all nations were anxious to deprecate their hostilities. This charm was dissolved by the capture of two of their ships by commodore Decatur, and his subsequent appearance off Algiers with his victorious squadron, while theirs was at sea. Omar had the good sense to comprehend the danger of his posi-

tion, and ceding to circumstances, accepted the terms of peace offered to him by the victor. If he has since equivocated upon that peace, and demonstrated a disposition to renew the war, it ought rather to be attributed to misrepresentation here, and to a policy in which Algiers has been too long indulged, and in which she has always found her account, than to absolute bad faith in the Bashaw. Holland being at the same time at war with the regency, her squadron arrived here a short time after ours, but their conduct tended rather to aid the Dey in his design of raising the drooping spirits of Algiers, than to forward their object of making an honourable peace. In the course of that summer he sent his fleet to sea in defiance of the Dutch.

It seems that the legitimate proprietors of mankind after restoring the golden age in Europe, and paying due attention to the rights of the citizens of Congo and Mosambique, believed it incumbent upon them to adopt measures for something like maritime liberty, and the suppression of the white slave trade on the coast of Barbary. Great Britain having in all probability good reasons for wishing to prevent such affairs from becoming a general question in the council of sovereigns, detached lord Exmouth here with a powerful fleet in the month of April 1816, who, with much parade and ostentation, concluded peace between Algiers and the kings of Naples and Sardinia. The conditions of this peace, it is true, provided for the gradual emancipation in the course of two years, of the slaves of those two powers, for the consideration of about a million of dollars to be paid by them to Algiers, and becoming their tributaries. It is remarkable that the first positive demonstration of hostility to the United States since the peace, was shown a few days after the conclusion of this treaty. As you were present at this affair, you know that although the pretensions of the bashaw might be unfounded, his conduct and deportment in the negotiation which terminated it, was magnanimous and honourable. To the engagements which he made then, he has been most religiously faithful.

On the receipt in Europe of the news of the negotiations by lord Exmouth, it excited universal indignation, and brought upon the British government the imputation of entertaining views relative to Barbary, interested and oppressive to other nations. In consequence, the same nobleman arrived here again with his fleet in the month of May following. What was the exact tenor of the propositions made to the regency on that occasion, cannot be known here, but it appears evident that they contained conditions subversive of those which had been solemnly stipulated one month previous. Such inconsistent conduct might have embarrassed a more enlightened cabinet than that of Algiers. The Dey on this occasion acted with great prudence, he laid the affair not only before the divan, but also before the soldiers in the barracks, who unanimously agreed to support him. He then replied to lord Exmouth, that as the regency of Algiers was a dependency of the Ottoman porte, he could not re-

ply to his proposition before consulting his *Suzerain*, the grand signor. Lord Exmouth threatened to attack and destroy Algiers, if he persisted in his refusal to agree to his demands, and very imperiously gave him three hours to reply in. The bashaw then reproached him with the puerile inconsistency of his conduct, which precluded any reliance upon whatever engagement he might make with him, and rejected his propositions. Lord Exmouth then retired on board, from whence he again gave notice of his intention to attack the place. The bashaw appears at this time to have regarded a war with England as actually begun, and amongst other measures of safety, he dispatched couriers to Bona and Oran, with orders to arrest all British subjects or persons under the British protection in those places. These orders were executed with excessive rigour at the former place, where was a great number of Italians engaged in the coral fisheries, under British license and protection. These persons resisted the orders of the Algerine government, and in consequence many of them were massacred. This affair was however settled without hostilities. Lord Exmouth finding that he could not intimidate, agreed to allow the time necessary to consult the Ottoman government upon the points of dispute. Thus did Omar, by his correct judgment and firmness, extricate himself from a difficulty which seemed to threaten his government with the most serious consequences.

Omar on his accession to sovereign power, had not neglected to send ambassadors to Constantinople, to explain and disavow the hostile conduct of his predecessor. He had been long engaged in collecting presents of great magnificence for the same destination, and a British frigate was now placed at his disposal to convey those presents to Constantinople, which would seem to indicate that the late arrangement was at least a friendly one. Shortly after this affair, arrived a *Capidgi Bashi*, or commissary of the Porte, with the caftan and sabre, with which the deys of Algiers are usually invested by the grand seignor after their election, and which is a recognition of their legitimacy. This in his actual situation was a very agreeable occurrence.

The last treaty, or convention, concluded by lord Exmouth does not appear to have been more satisfactory in Europe than the first, and as the national honour of Great Britain had been most cruelly committed in it, the ministry determined on a third expedition to Algiers. The massacre at Bona consequent to the orders of the bashaw to arrest all persons then under British protection, was a principal pretext for this war. Those orders were a common measure of safety, rendered necessary by the wanton menaces of the British commander. Those people resisted an order of the Algerine government to arrest and secure their persons: they were consequently reduced by force of arms, as they would have been in any other country in similar circumstances. Therefore this cannot be regarded as a just cause of war; and lord Exmouth had declared himself satisfied with the reparation made

him for the insults received by him and his officers, from the populace of Algiers in May; as a proof of this, he exchanged swords with the bashaw, and accepted a present of a horse from him. There was therefore no new cause of war, and if these transactions are ever fully made public, they must place the British government in a very ridiculous point of view. Whether the Turkish practice of confining ambassadors and other public agents in the castle of the seven towers on the breaking out of war—that which is sometimes adopted by civilized governments, of waylaying, and murdering them, in order to seize their papers—or finally, the unsteady, and uncandid conduct of Great Britain towards Algiers since the month of April 1816—be a sufficient excuse for the dey in violating the laws of nations in the person of the British consul, by arresting, and confining him in chains previous to the battle—I leave to the judgement of those who are better versed in such matters than I am. A proof that this outrage was not regarded in a very serious light at the time, is that no adequate reparation to the consul was insisted upon by the British negotiator, for the indignities which he had suffered, and his name was not even mentioned in the public despatches which gave an account of the battle and subsequent peace. During the battle of the 27th of August, the conduct of Omar was that of a brave and judicious man; perhaps the only fault he committed was that of not firing upon the enemy's ships before they took their positions. He was always at the post of danger, and continued the fight until any longer resistance was vain. In the subsequent negotiation, he maintained the same calmness of temper that he is so remarkable for, requesting of the British negotiator that he would as a favour, inform him once for all, the extent of the claims of his government upon him.

It must be admitted that the man who always shows himself equal to the circumstances in which fortune places him, cannot want capacity. The results of the battle of the 27th August afforded Omar an opportunity of demonstrating the firmness of his mind, and of developing his great abilities for business. The Algerines may with justice, be characterised as a turbulent, factious and superstitious banditti. Their fleet was destroyed, their military works laid in ruins: their political existence seemed to be actually eclipsed. They had long entertained the opinion that their chief was unfortunate, a prejudice which a dey of Algiers seldom survives for any length of time, and on this occasion they shew the most unequivocal disposition to sacrifice him to their despair. Omar, aware of his danger, visited the barracks, and harangued the soldiers. He represented to them, that although their misfortunes were great, they were not irreparable; that they had still great resources, by a prudent use of which, with courage, and patience, many things might be restored upon a footing even better than ever. That by disunion amongst themselves every thing might be inevitably lost. That if they believed him to be an obstacle to

the restoration of the power of Algiers, he then offered himself to them as a victim. This discourse, together with a judicious distribution of presents, and the influence of his friends, most effectually quelled a fermentation, which if neglected, might have terminated in the most violent excesses, and the total ruin of the Turkish domination in Algiers. In the mean time he brought workmen and materials from the remotest part of his dominions, and through the most indefatigable activity, superintending every thing in person, he actually replaced Algiers by the middle of December following, in a better state of defence than it ever was. At the same time he cleared the port of all the wrecks; purchased and equipped four capital cruizers; laid a sloop of war upon the stocks: and took such other measures as must in a short time render the maritime power of Algiers, more efficient than ever; for as it never can be regarded in any other light than as a piratical power, light fast sailing cruizers are obviously more to be dreaded than heavy frigates; as being less tangible, and equally mischievous to commerce. Of the subsequent negotiations with us, you are informed. You know that the Bashaw supported his reputation there as a man of capacity and honor.

I shall finish this long article by noticing several traits in the character of Omar, which attest his clemency, and do much honor to his dispositions as a man.—In the latter part of the year 1815 a conspiracy was formed against him, at the head of which was Abdalla, then minister of Marine. This man had been a chief of banditti in the neighbourhood of Smyrna; subsequently here, the confidant and instrument of the sanguinary cruelties of Hadgi Ali, whom he afterwards murdered with his own hands as a partizan of Omar, who in consequence promoted him to the post of high Chamberlain; and afterwards to that of *Vic Ric Hadgi*, or minister of Marine. It is not known that Abdalla possessed a single respectable quality. In him avarice, cruelty, vindictiveness, and brutal ignorance, were associated with inordinate ambition. Fortunately the plan to murder the Dey and place the supreme power in the hands of this monster was discovered in time, and he was arrested on the 12th of December of that year. Instead of taking his life, which is the usual course in such cases in Algiers, this wretch was embarked with his family and effects for the Levant, at the expense of the Regency, by order of the Bashaw, and his real property given to his brother, who is a man of respectable character. The man who succeeded him in the administration of the Marine, was not either distinguished by any respectable quality. Ignorance and brutality were his leading characteristics. In the battle of the 27th of August he was accused of connivance with the enemy, and his head was demanded with clamorous violence. Omar ordered him confined. The British negociator afterwards appeared disposed to consider this minister as the author of the indignities which had been heaped upon the British Consul and his family, to which Omar with great magnanimity, re-

plied, that his minister had acted according to orders which he had received from him. Never did the affairs of a Dey of Algiers more imperiously demand a victim than on this occasion. Yet Omar refused to take his life, and on the first occasion embarked him with his family for the Levant.

On his accession to supreme authority Omar had sent for his mother and a remaining brother, who arrived here in the summer of 1816. It appears that he must have regarded his situation here as precarious, for his brother returned immediately after the battle, and in the month of February following he embarked his mother and his eldest son, on board of a Swedish vessel chartered for the purpose, to return to Mitylene. On the departure of this vessel, he sent for the Swedish Captain in company with the Consul; he made the former a very magnificent present, and recommended to his particular care and attention, his mother and son, as the dearest objects of his solicitude. On this occasion he could not restrain his tears which flowed in abundance. Here I take leave of Omar. It is possible that the two former instances of clemency, may be differently accounted for upon principles of state policy, but the latter cannot be misinterpreted. This impartial sketch of a character, can only be appreciated by considering what a Dey of Algiers usually is. To the most brutal violence, atrocity, and insolence, has succeeded in the person of Omar, at least a semblance of propriety, decency, and decorum. Yours, S.

OUTLINES OF GEOLOGY.

ART. III.—1. *Outlines of Geology; being the Substance of a Course of Lectures delivered in the Theatre of the Royal Institution in the Year 1816. By William Thomas Brande, Secretary to the Royal Society of London; Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Murray. 1817.*

2. *A Journal of Science and the Arts. No. V. Edited at the Royal Institution. Murray. 1817.*

[MR. BRANDE'S outlines of Geology have but recently reached this country; the fifth number of the *Journal of Science and the Arts*, we have had for some time. The following review of these publications is not very favourable to Mr. Brande's labours, but it is so manifestly drawn up with competent knowledge of the subject, that our readers interested in the modern Science of Mineralogy, will be glad to see an English estimate of Mr. Brande's pretensions.]

[*From the British Critic.*]

PREFIXED to the second of the publication which we have placed at the head of our article, is an Essay "on the advancement of science as connected with the rise and progress of the Royal Institution;" and we think it right to state in the outset, that it is solely to the said essay, or retrospect, or eulogium, for we know not well how to fit it with an appellation, that our remarks are to be directed. Our object too in fixing upon this pro-

duction we may also state, is not to draw from its contents a connected view of what has been imagined or achieved by philosophers during any given period of time: it is merely to present to our readers a fair and warranted specimen of that kind of style which is cultivated at present in the Royal Institution of Great Britain, for illustrating facts or expounding doctrines in the more severe and recondite departments of science; and to exhibit, as we go along, a few traits of that unaffected modesty which never fails to adorn the labours of those who are distinguished either by talents for deep research, or by high scientific attainments. We have not heard indeed, who is the author of the little performance of which we are now speaking; but judging from internal evidence, we should be disposed to ascribe it to the professor of chymistry in the Royal Institution, to whom we are also indebted for the geological outlines which will form the main subject of this article.

We agree then, in the first place with our learned author, whoever he may be, that "it can but rarely happen, that the concentrated genius of ages and the multifarious science of a wide extended world, should be traced before us by a master's hand, in one clear and highly finished picture;" and moreover that "when such a view is offered, we know of no greater intellectual treat;" but we have great doubts notwithstanding, whether an individual or even a corporate body can so speak of their own exploits as to secure for themselves the same degree of interest and admiration, or to communicate the same degree of delight as when they record the successes of others. We shall be better understood perhaps, when our reader has perused the following sentence. "We do not now address the public," says the author of this essay, "as mere journalists, but we raise the voice of the Royal Institution of Great Britain; and in tracing rapidly the march of science from the foundation of our establishment, we shall reclaim with pride the concentrated glory of discoveries which would have shed no mean lustre diffused over the philosophy of an age." We cannot help supposing, but that we are given to understand, in pretty plain words too, that all the discoveries and improvements which have been made in the present century, originated, or were perfected, in the Royal Institution. None certainly value more highly than we do the successful labours of Sir H. Davy, nor prize in a greater degree the vast additions which he has made to chemical knowledge both in respect of facts and principles; still we have not been so inattentive to what has been going on in other quarters of the world, as to concede to the claims of any one association the "concentrated glory" connected with every division of natural philosophy. That we are not overstraining the meaning of the words which we have transcribed is abundantly manifest from the spirit of the whole paper taken together, and particularly from a passage towards the close of it, where, imploring the protection of the State, and soliciting a por-

tion of those rewards which are bestowed upon such of our countrymen as have raised the nation to glory by the arts of war, the author modestly asks whether "it might not be right to hold forth some encouragement to others who have raised the British name *at least as high*, by pursuits which lead to the civilization and general improvement of mankind." In the same tone of feeling an objection is removed, which it should seem, was at one time urged against the establishment of the Institution, namely, that it would tend to diminish the importance of our elder societies. An appeal is therefore boldly made to the annals of the Royal Society itself for the record of their services, accompanied with the unassuming remark, that it will not be "any disparagement to the dignity of that venerable body, to shew that some of the fairest flowers of her later transactions *were sown and nurtured by the experimental manipulations* not of a jealous rival, but of a useful and laborious ally."

It is not our business however to dispute with this eulogist of the Institution the "concentrated glory of discoveries" which he has raised his voice to reclaim; we proceed, therefore to abstract a paragraph or two from his inimitable performance, as a sample of the language in which he chooses to describe the *sowing and nurturing of scientific flowers of experimental manipulations*.

"The history of chemical science," says he, "must for ever date one of its principal epochs from the foundation of the laboratory of the Royal Institution. The reformed doctrines of the French school were but just firmly established by the powerful engine of her nomenclature, and the *expiring groans* of the phlogistic hypothesis were still heard in the last writings of Dr. Priestley, when a new power of nature was developed by the experiments of Galvani, and a new and powerful instrument of research, combined by the genius of Volta. The experimentalists of our school were not behind others in their investigations of the laws of galvanism; and various were their improvements in the Voltaic apparatus, till its splendid powers were first fully displayed in giant greatness, in the *history* of the Institution. The impulse which was given to science by these striking discoveries, vibrated to every part of the civilized world, and the crowded lectures in which such wonderful novelties were displayed, with all the powers of eloquence and all the aids of a splendid apparatus, contributed not a little in this country, to the rapid diffusion of a taste for philosophic enquiry.—It was now that a light broke forth from her laboratory whose splendour was to radiate to every branch of chemical science, and which while it confirmed in some things the generally received doctrines, was destined to effect a revolution in others as important as it was unlooked for; foreign nations were emulous in offering their tribute of admiration to the genius of the British school, and the rival policy of a hostile government presented a civic crown to the pre-eminence of transcendent merit. The energy which was thus communicated to science, spread to all the parts of the civilized world with the rapidity of the electric shock; the rays of the new light were reflected from every quarter, and discoveries, which were but the consequences of the newly-ascertained law of nature, flowed in with a tide which almost overwhelmed the imagination. The effects of the ex-

plasion of fire damp in coal mines has long been known and deplored; but the frequency and devastating consequences of it, in the last few years, has made every friend of humanity shudder, and look forward with horror to the certainty of its more frequent occurrence, in proportion to the daily extending progress of the miner in his subterraneous operations; urged by the heart-rending cry of suffering humanity, science turned aside from her speculations, and after an examination of the nature of the enemy with which she had to contend, traced with laborious and often dangerous perseverance, its most recondite principles, and at length presented to the astonished and grateful miner the *ignited elements of explosion fluttering harmless in a wire cage*. But whilst proclaiming a train of discoveries whose splendour and importance have never been equalled, and whose bright effulgence will distinguish her name, as the names of those in whom she glories as her sons;" (what is meant by all this we beg to know) "the Royal Institution has not been unmindful of less striking though scarcely less useful interests. In the department of geology she boasts of the first attempt to describe the strata and mineral productions of Great Britain with reference to a collection ever open to the public. As a school of chemistry, we boldly challenge competition." (comparison he means surely) "It is here that we behold a sight not to be paralleled in the civilized world. It is hither that our country women flock to give their all-powerful countenance to pursuits which ennoble the mind. While beauty and fashion continue to patronize mental improvement, it will ever be unfashionable to be uninformed; and while we acknowledge with gratitude the benefit which science derives from a patronage which is as *irresistable* as it is extensive, justice calls upon us to rebut the charge of fickleness. Long may the ladies of London, &c. &c. And can it now be a question whether the Royal Institution is to stand? We boldly answer No." But "our arrears, trifling as they are, clog our exertions; and the hands of the *Hercules*, who even in his infant days, has given such promise of future excellence, are bound by a mere spider's web. Be it remembered at all events, that we sink not noiseless into oblivion: our fame is gone abroad to all the corners of the earth, and if we fail in the face of the world, our list will no longer be the register of names which radiate and reflect the glory of this splendid establishment, but the barren catalogue of those who had not spirit enough to support an institution which had been so pre-eminently distinguished in the cause of humanity and philosophy."

After reading these quotations, taken from a paper of about twenty pages, no man can be at a loss to determine the extent of the claims which a body of men, allowing such a piece of inflated absurdity to come out under their sanction ought to have upon a discerning public. We can say for ourselves, most conscientiously, that we never saw as much assurance combined with the same quantity of bad writing, in any essay, scientific or literary, whether acknowledged or anonymous. It is quite *unique*. Who, for example, ever heard a man in his senses talk of "the circle of our pursuits seeming to expand as we contemplate the *concentric* efforts of others?" or of a contemplation which "assists in forming useful *anticipations of future prospects*;" or of mathematicians beholding "the abstruse calculations of numbers and of *space* appli-

ed to the forms of matter;" or of the "*fundamental doctrines of motion* being referred to mathematical *axioms*:" or of "investigating the *passive* strength of materials" or of "twenty thousand volumes in all *current* languages!" We take leave however, of this unknown academician; exhorting him, when he next takes up his pen to give his annual retrospect of philosophical discoveries, to attend more to common sense than to sounding words, and in all the details of his "sowing and nurturing experimental manipulations," to give us facts and results whatever they may be, in the plain language appropriated to science.

Mr. Brande's book, to the consideration of which we now proceed, demands attention on two separate accounts; first as containing a few specific notices relative to the mineralogy of this Island, and secondly as supporting a particular theory as to the formation and arrangement of mineral substances at large.

We begin with his map, or section of the strata from London to Cornwall and Cumberland, respectively, in which we suspect there are several inaccuracies. For example, in describing the amygdaloid or toadstone of Derbyshire, he represents it as being massive like granite, and cutting across the limestone strata from below; whereas the true position of the said amygdaloid is in beds, alternating with, or resting upon, the calcareous rocks. There is a similar mis-statement too, with regard to the green-stone of Cornwall. This rock is likewise represented as being massive like granite, and as shooting veins into the clay slate, or slate kilns, according to the local terminology adopted by Mr. Brande; but every body knows that the true situation of the Cornwall green-stone is that of *beds* in the clay slate, along with serpentine. We have some difficulty in accounting for such gross blundering in matters so obvious and generally known, and what is more surprising in direct opposition to his own statement in the letter-press portion of his book. At page 117, when speaking of trap-rocks, and more particularly of greenstone, he observes, that "in Derbyshire these rocks are among the transition series of Werner; they form *strata* and fill cavities in the limestone." In the map, however, there is no greenstone strata whatever represented in the Derbyshire district, whilst the amygdaloid, the only trap-rock therein exhibited, appears like a mass spouted up from the Plutonic regions, and forcing its way through the superincumbent limestone. A suspicious controversialist would maintain that this glaring inconsistency between the pen and the pencil was a private sacrifice offered up at the shrine of theory. At all events the object is very manifest: the trap-rocks compose one of the hills of strife upon which the Wernerians and Huttonians have long exercised the weapons of controversy; it is very natural therefore that a disciple of the latter school should be eager to provide the BEAUX and BELLES of the metropolis with a species of argument best suited to the nature of their studies, a *splendidly coloured plate*: being morally certain that few of them would ever reach the

117th page of his outlines, to tease him with questions on the consistency of his statements.

2. We were struck with the inaccurate and unscientific manner in which Mr. Brande speaks of granite, in his 43d and 44th pages. After mentioning that we have *fine grained* and *coarse grained* granite, he adds, "the former is abundant in Scotland, the latter in Devonshire and Cornwall." Now, the fact is, that most of the Scotch granite is coarse granular. Again, on the same subject, he remarks, that "if we examine a granitic district in nature, we shall observe, in regard to it, two leading phenomena. The one is, that veins of granite frequently shoot from the great mass into the superincumbent strata." We have merely to state however in answer to this, that the extensive granitic range of the Riesengebirge exhibited no such appearance to the acute and enlightened eye of Raumer, one of the best observers of our time.

3. The meagre account of the highly interesting hill of Aviemore appears to us exceedingly incorrect. The author calls the district of Aviemore *granitic*, whereas the hill itself is gneiss, alternating with beds of granite and traversed with veins of that rock. We do not however call in question his statement that such veins are seen "penetrating the slaty rock in all directions," and that "upon the weather worn side, facing the north-east, a large vein of granite may be perceived, widest at bottom, running nearly perpendicular, and enlarging into a mass or stratum of granite, between the schistose layers;" but we crave liberty to add, that many of those veins are seen terminating both above and below, and that, consequently, they cannot have been ejected from the great Huttonian furnace in the bowels of the earth. Such veins are of contemporaneous formation with the rocks in which they are found; for we hold so far with Werner, as to deny the position of Mr. Brande, that "every vein must be of a date superior to that of the body which contains it." Every one in the smallest degree acquainted with these matter knows the nature of the argument and the conclusion which the Huttonians have founded on the facts now alluded to by Professor Brande. From the shooting of granite veins into the superincumbent strata they labour to prove both that the granite must have been in a state of fusion at the moment of its injection, and also as a natural consequence, that it must be of later formation than the strata which it penetrates. But to satisfy our author that the facts for which he contends, would even if substantiated, go only a very little way in making out his point, we have to remind him that many other rocks, besides granite, shoot veins from their masses, both upwards and downwards; which rocks, even according to the leading principles of the Huttonian theory itself, could never have been in a state of fusion. This is found to be the case with floetz limestone, sand stone, and even clay slate; and, indeed, there are few rocks which do not occasionally exhibit at their line of junction, appearances of the same description with those which

sometimes occur at the junction of granite with gneiss, or clay slate.

4. The professor after admitting that there are granite veins frequently discovered which cannot be traced to any original mass or mountain, inform us, that "Dr. Hutton, from collateral evidence, conceives that these are always united to some granitic mass, though too deep, or at too great a distance to be traced and discovered." What, we beg leave to ask, is Dr. Hutton's evidence, either collateral or direct? It amounts, at the best, to mere conjecture, grounded too on a bold hypothesis, unwarranted by reason, and unsupported by observation. Such veins, we repeat, are contemporaneous, exactly like the siliceous and calcareous veins which present themselves in the most common rocks of the floetz formation, and which are to be seen on a still smaller scale, in almost all the members of the quartz and clay families. Our author is exceedingly unfortunate in all his examples under this head. He refers to Portsoy and Glentilt, to some of the Western isles of Scotland, particularly Tirce and Coll, as also some parts of Cornwall. Now, it happens that in Glentilt there is no granite at all, whilst the granitic veins at Portsoy can in general be traced to their termination, both above and below. Those again, of Tirce and Coll are evidently of the contemporaneous formation, the nature of which we have already described.

5. The account of Porphyry and Serpentine, in the opening of the third lecture is extremely meagre and unsatisfactory. Does Mr. Brande not know that the basis of porphyry may be claystone, hornstone, and pitchstone, as well as felspar? Is he certain, moreover, that he ever saw serpentine resting upon blocks of porphyry? And what are we to understand by the very loose expressions, "veins of granite *associating* with those of steatite, pervading the granite?" and "Serpentine at Portsoy *associating* with granite?" Such descriptions of the locality and relative situation of rocks, would not be pardoned in a common miner. Of limestone too, that very important mineral substance, all that we are told, with respect to its geognostic relations at least, is, that it is *associated* among primary rocks with mica-slate and serpentine, and that in "Inverary Park it may be seen in contact with mica-slate and porphyry." After these enlightened and profound remarks, which constitute the philosophy of this part of the geological outlines, we are gravely informed, that "the most esteemed varieties (of marble) are perfectly white and free from veins, somewhat translucent, and susceptible of a good polish;" and that "these marbles are imported for ornamental purposes, especially for those of the sculptor," all which is followed by this simple assurance: "We have now considered a highly important series of rocks, and have enumerated their characters as insulated individuals."

To be serious: had this book been the first publication in the department of mineralogy; had Werner, and Kirwan, and Von

Busch, and Jameson, never written their several works; had the English public in these times had as few means of prosecuting this interesting study, as they possessed in the days of Burnet or Whiston, then, peradventure, might such a treatise as that now before us, have done some credit to its author, and some good, perhaps, to the inquisitive student. But, in the present state of knowledge, both as to simple minerals, and the composition and relation of mountain rocks, the case is, without doubt, entirely different, and these "Outlines of Geology," accordingly contain not, we are positively certain, one single fact or argument which is not already before the public in a more accurate and intelligible form. Considering what has been done by the Geological Society, the Wernerian society, by Dr. Kidd, and Professor Jameson, compared with the scanty and incorrect details of Mr. Brande, we cannot sufficiently condemn the imprudence of the writer, in the journal of the Royal Institution, who says, in allusion to the essay we are now reviewing, that "she (the Institution) boasts of the first attempt to describe the strata and mineral productions of Great Britain."—*Nascitur ridiculus mus!*

We had marked several other mistakes in the course of reading this little work, but we shall content ourselves with mentioning one more, namely, the appearance of sandstone, when in beds, alternating with trap rocks. In such circumstances it is very well known, the sandstone at the line of junction has an indurated look, as if a portion of the greenstone or basalt were incorporated with it, or introduced by percolation into its pores; and this appearance has been ascribed by the Huttonians to their favourite doctrine that the trap rocks were originally interjected between the sandstone beds in a state of fusion.

"The common observer," says Mr. Brande, "to whom a piece of basalt is presented, would presently announce it to be the produce of a volcano, and the analogy between it and lava is most striking. This alone would justify us in concluding that whinstone is the produce of fire. But the Huttonian hypothesis, as applied to its origin, becomes much more satisfactory, when we contemplate the effects produced upon the strata, into which it has been thrown, or upon the substances in its vicinity. Thus the sandstone of Salisbury Crag is broken, indurated, and even fused by its irruption."

In reply to this statement, we have briefly to observe, that the fusion of such sandstone is a mere fancy of Dr. Hutton's; the very same appearance being discoverable in sandstone, where it alternates with slate-clay, at a distance too from trap of every description, and even in situations where no trap is to be found.

These remarks naturally lead us to the second part of the subject discussed by our author, and introduce us to his notions on what has been called a theory of the earth. Taking up very literally the doctrines of Hutton and Playfair, he regards trap rocks, as well as granite, as having been completely melted in the immense subterranean fire, lighted up by his master, at an indefinite

depth in the entrails of our globe, and afterwards thrown up to form masses, beds, and dykes among the stratified minerals deposited by the ocean. Let us examine then, into the few phenomena of which we are in possessor, and see how this hypothesis accounts for the said fused sandstone of Salisbury Crag. Mr. Brande certainly does not require to be told, that in the well-known hill he has mentioned, there is a succession of strata, or beds, of greenstone and sandstone alternating with each other; and this being the case, we are desirous to be informed how the fused trap could make its way through the sandstone mass, and divide it into regular strata, parallel to one another, and to the interposed beds of greenstone! It is admitted by all Huttonians, we believe, that sandstone is a deposition from water, and moreover, that it has never been melted in their mighty furnace at the centre of the earth; how then are they to explain the undeniable fact, that strata, composed of a stone, avowedly of aqueous origin, are found alternating with those of another stone, which they maintain to be of igneous origin, in the most regular succession, and preserving at the same time in their position the strictest parallelism throughout their whole extent. Could the melted greenstone be injected from the deep, in a direction nearly horizontal too, into a superincumbent rock, so regularly, and almost at given distances! We admit that the Wernerians have to encounter no small difficulty in explaining the alternation of sandstone and greenstone, in what they call their independent coal formations; and it is not very easy to conceive that the fluid which covered the face of the earth, should deposit siliceous matter in a state of mechanical division, until it had formed one stratum in a particular place, and then proceeded to deposit hornblende and felspar until it had formed a stratum of greenstone to cover that other stratum, and so on in regular succession, we know not how often. There is a difficulty here, and no candid Wernerian will deny it; but still, when compared with the monstrous assumption, that the one rock was spouted into the other from a great depth in a state of fluidity, it vanishes into nothing. If, however, the Huttonian could prove that, where the sandstone is found in contact with the trap, the former is indurated, or *fused*, in a way in which it is never found, when in contact with any other kind of rock, we should be compelled to yield to a presumption at least considerably in favour of his hypothesis. But so far is this from being the case, we are prepared, as we have already said, to bring forward a multitude of facts to show that sandstone exhibits the very same appearance; the appearance of induration, or fusion, we mean; where it alternates with slate clay, a substance which no man ever imagined to have been exposed to fire.

When on this topic, we may adduce one or two cases from Dr. Murray, whose book Mr. Brande does not appear to have read. Alluding to the operation of the internal heat of the Huttonians, the Doctor mentions, among other things, that strata of rock-salt

are sometimes covered by strata of sandstone or limestone. The Huttonian geologist, he observes, must suppose that this sandstone has been consolidated by the central heat, acting through the rock-salt below it. But this is plainly an impossibility. The salt is a substance comparatively very fusible, as it can even be volatilized by the heat of a coarse pottery furnace, while sandstone is very infusible. The heat necessary, therefore, to soften sandstone in this position, must have melted the salt beneath; and as this latter substance is of a much inferior specific gravity, the sandstone must have sunk in it, and the arrangement observed by nature could never have been produced. We find, continues the Doctor, in innumerable cases, strata more imperfectly consolidated than others above them, and of course further removed from the consolidating power, though the difference cannot be ascribed to any difference in the fusibility of the substances composing them. An example will place this in a clear light. In a section of the strata at Newcastle, coal is found at the depth of 102 feet; over it is a bed of black clay, 13 feet thick, with impressions of ferns in its substance; above this, another bed of harder clay, 26 feet in thickness. The stratum incumbent on this is a hard quartzose sandstone, with specks of mica, 25 feet thick; and this is again covered by clay. Now, how could this sandstone have been consolidated by the subterranean heat, while so many feet of clay beneath it, and of course, nearer the operation of that heat, had not even been indurated! We may pronounce it impossible that it should be so. Nor is the example uncommon: there are many similar to it, and even less favourable, as the banks of clay extend to eighty, an hundred, or more fathoms in thickness, with perfectly consolidated sandstone above; and this is diversified with alternations of limestone, gypsum, coal, and a great variety of other secondary rocks.

In this book of Mr. Brande's there is not the slightest attempt made to remove the objections now stated; indeed he does not seem to be aware that such objections have ever been urged. With regard, again, to the difficulty attending the fundamental position of the Huttonian hypothesis, that there exists a subterranean fire, which consolidates and raises mineral strata; the *pabulum* which maintains it, if it does feed upon consumable materials, the causes and periods of its renovation, if it is ever extinguished or suppressed; our author merely observes, that "the discoveries of Sir Humphrey Davy, concerning the true nature of earthy bodies, have furnished unexpected evidence in defence of these apparent incongruities of the Huttonian doctrines." With the utmost desire to appreciate the value of this evidence, we are entirely thrown out in our search for the particular point, on which it may be supposed to bear. That the alkaline earths have a metallic base of small specific gravity, and easily combustible, is a fact, the discovery and confirmation of which we owe to Sir H. Davy; but as no attempt has been made to deduce from that fact, either that

lime or any other earth constitutes the burning substance in the centre of our globe, or that these bodies have become more combustible since their constituent parts were brought to light, by the analytic processes now attached, we cannot possibly discover the connexion to which Mr. Brande refers us, between the splendid experiments in the institution and the doctrines of the Huttonian theory.

But, leaving professor Brande, who has not said any thing new, either for the theory which he has chosen to defend, or against that which it has pleased him to oppose, we cannot help observing, in relation to the Huttonian hypothesis, that its author has undertaken to explain, from an assumed and very doubtful principle, the most magnificent phenomena on the earth's surface. What an immense body of granite and other primary rocks must be contained in the Andes, and in the Thibet chain of mountains, the latter of which ascend nearly twenty-seven thousand feet above the level of the ocean! If the secondary strata, which rest upon the sides of those gigantic ridges were as the Huttonian maintains, at one time, a dead flat at the bottom of the sea, how incalculably large the quantity of matter, and how immeasurably great the force, necessary to raise and support them at such an elevation. Those astonishing chains of mountains which, as Cuvier says, constitute the frame-work of this globe, stretching from the arctic nearly to the antartic circle, and giving a form and character to all our continents, in the old world as well as in the new, originated, says the disciple of Dr. Hutton, in the spouting up of melted granite from the bowels of the earth! The mighty Andes themselves, towering into the clouds, and extending more than a thousand leagues in length, are to be traced to a Plutonic furnace, belching forth quartz and mica in a state of fusion!

A thought has just struck us, which, we imagine, might be applied with some success, to ascertain whether transitive and secondary rocks have been deposited, according to the Wernerian hypothesis, on the primitive masses, placed at their present height above the level of the waters, or whether, agreeably to the views of Hutton, they were broken and forced up from a horizontal position at the bottom of the sea. If the secondary strata, covering the sides of a primitive mountain would, when restored to their level posture, occupy more ground than the base of that mountain, we might justly infer that they had not been deposited in horizontal layers. If, for example, a mountain elevated four thousand feet above the ocean, presented on its sides, at the height of three thousand feet or upwards, a stratification of secondary rocks, we might safely conclude that these rocks had been deposited upon it, and not broken through and lifted up during its ascent from below; for, according to the latter supposition, the separated strata would not have attained so great an elevation. Something no doubt, depends upon the length of the base, and the angles at which the mountain rises from the plain, but in no case can the sum of the two sides, to the point at which they are over laid with secondary strata, exceed the base, without furnishing po-

sitive proof that these strata were not disrupted by the propulsion from below, of the central granite. We have not the means at present of making any reference to facts in relation to this subject; but considering that the principal waste takes place in the strata which cover the primitive rocks, and that, consequently, these strata must now be found at a level considerably lower than they originally stood, the Huttonian can have no reason to challenge this test.

At all events, it is high time to have a truce with hypothesis. The speculations of the theorist have already far outstripped the progress of actual knowledge: the geologist has already advanced too far without the aid of the mineralogist. Kirwan himself was not deeply versed in the details of simple minerals; Hutton was still less so; and Mr. Playfair puts forth no pretensions to that kind of science. It is to the works of Werner and his later disciples that the world has been indebted for the recent improvements in this field of inquiry; and guided by the same views, the members of the Wernerian and geological societies, in different parts of Britain, are at this moment occupied, not in imagining hypothetical conditions to explain the past and present state of the earth's crust, but in endeavouring to ascertain the natural arrangement of rocks, and the various relations which subsist among them. The memoirs accordingly, which make up the transactions of these societies, are almost entirely descriptive: they are collections of facts gathered immediately from nature, pure from the dross of hypothesis, and unaffected by the spirit of controversy. Since the publication of Mr. Jameson's *Elements of Geognosy*, which afforded at once the first connected view of Werner's principles, and the first regular system of geology in the English language, we have several works of considerable merit, drawn up in the same practical and descriptive manner. Among these, we cannot fail to give a place to the elegant little work of professor Kid, of Oxford, and to the *Geological Treatise* by Mr. Phillips. Cuvier's *Essay towards a Theory of the Earth*, is indeed a performance in rather a different line of study: but, superficial as it unquestionably is, it will be found of no small use to the beginner in mineralogy. The works of Parkinson and Martin, on petrefactions too, merit high commendation, and ought to be in the hands of every student.

A parting word to the royal institution, and we have done. Let the professors prosecute their experiments, and employ their powerful apparatus, without ceasing; for they have thereby done great service to chemical science, and may yet do more; but let them write sparingly. Their manipulations ought not to extend to pens and paper. Popular lecturers, like popular preachers, should seldom publish; for the kind of style which suits addresses to the heart and the imagination of half learned youths, or susceptible damsels, will not be endured in a book having any pretensions to scientific accuracy. We allude chiefly to the retrospect prefixed to the last journal of the institution, than which we certainly never read any thing of greater pomp, and worse taste.

ART. IV. *A Morning's Walk in the State of Delaware.*

Dover, 1st October, 1817.

THE patriotic sir John Sinclair when he designed a statistical account of Scotland, for the benefit of his native country, with a view to apply those improvements of which it might be susceptible, had recourse to the correspondence of the established clergy in the several parishes, whom he knew to be generally a most enlightened body. A concern for the welfare of their respective cures, he was aware, had led them to form an intimate acquaintance with the interests, and wants, temporal as well as spiritual, of their several districts, and from such a class of men, the most accurate and intelligent reports were to be expected. To each minister he transmitted a series of queries, which were answered in a manner altogether so clear and explanatory—in language so correct and philosophical—embracing every relative point unconfined, and abounding in useful practical suggestions, as to form a most valuable and admired contribution to the stock of knowledge in rural and political economy. The encomiums of Europe have awarded the due praise to the venerable author of the project, as well as to the clergy of Scotland, whose papers bear internal evidence of their learning and talents.

May we profit by so happy an example; and, though the want of a national establishment of religion, may appear, at the first glance, to oppose some obstacle to the success of the plan, yet surely, some expedient might be devised to set the necessary researches in motion, by promoting local attention and examination. I propose to supply this defect in my district, by way of instance of the feasibility of the scheme; scarcely hoping, however, to do more than reflect the objects which come within the range of a country clergyman, leaving more experienced economists to deduce the higher conclusions.

Dover is the seat of government for this state, being wisely chosen for that purpose, on account of its situation in the centre of it. Inferior to Wilmington, which deserves to be ranked as the capital of Delaware, in size and population, it can boast none of those manufactures or works of public utility which distinguish that borough, but surrounded by a country wholly agricultural, assumes no other feature than that of a mart for the productions of the soil, and the resort of law officers, barristers, attornies, with occasionally a "*purba clientum*" from every quarter of the state. Here the public elections are held, and hence emanate the dispensation of justice, the provisions of the constitution, and the representative character of the people.

It would seem, from the names of some places in this state, that a Kentish interest from England had formerly been seated in these parts. We have Kent county, and Dover and Canterbury, both places in it. So, in England, they have Dover, a well known sea port, and Canterbury, an archbishop's see, the Metropolitan of Great Britain; both in Kent. About three miles to the south of

this place, is Camden, a village also in Kent county, possibly deriving its name from the celebrated antiquary whose "*Britannia*" is well known over Europe. Camden, it is remarkable, was a native of the county of Kent (England) in which he resided during his life.

This state, indeed, was settled principally from England. Its name and that of the noble river that laves the eastern shore of our Peninsula are to be traced to West, earl of Delaware, whose descendant the present earl, is to be found in the catalogue of British peers. The Wests abound, to this day, in the lower part of this state.

The convenience we enjoy in the proximity of the river Delaware, which though ten miles distant communicates with a creek navigable by sloops to within a mile of the town, affords a cheap and easy outlet for the produce of the country, and the exchange of commodities. Hence firewood, bark, staves, shingles and boards, wheat, flour, Indian corn and meal, are exported to Philadelphia, Wilmington, &c. in return for which, dry goods, domestic manufactures, hardware, iron, groceries and other articles are received in barter. Philadelphia absorbs the greater part of the commerce of the Delaware, on account of its superior demand and capital. The balance of trade has, latterly, been against this portion of the country, owing to the deficiency of crops—a circumstance attributed by the natives to the unfriendly seasons, and more particularly acknowledged to be the case within the last three years. Old men, speaking of twenty-five years ago, exclaim, "Ah, sir! our country does not yield the half now of what it used to do." I have endeavoured to solve this problem, and, as some admit, to their satisfaction, while others, with steadfast perseverance in exploded principles, for which farmers in every age have been proverbial, seemed resigned to expect no change for the better, and therefore relinquish all experiment.

The real cause of the unproductiveness of the land, I consider to arise from its exhaustion. The farmer, in many instances, holds 800 to 1000 acres, scarcely any part of which is in grass, the consequence is, his manures are insufficient; for it is the pasture which maintains cattle, and it is on cattle the farmer depends chiefly for the due quantity of manure. When all, or nearly all the land of a farm is arable, the soil must be impoverished in a term of years, unless the purchased manures are very considerable. Arable and pasture mutually assist each other in forming a great quantity of those most essential aids; the arable, in furnishing roots for the winter subsistence of the cattle, and straw for them to make into manure: the grass, in maintaining cattle in the summer, and raising hay for winter use. Without a proper observance of this distinction, the farm must suffer: Clover, it should be remembered, will not answer for fattening cattle, nor can cows be advantageously fed upon it. Our farms are too large, and our farmers too systematic in error. They seem totally to overlook

the consideration, that without proper fallows, and the due rotation of crops, it is vain to expect the full rewards of husbandry. Tull mentions an instance of a poor man, whom necessity compelled to allow his field to remain two seasons under fallow, because he could not get seed for his ground after he had tilled it the first year. The consequence was, that his crop was worth more than the value of the land it grew on. Maxwell too, another writer on husbandry, states the case of a tenant who, from a like necessity, followed the same example, and ultimately obtained such a crop as enabled him to pay many debts, and, by continuing the same practice, in a few years to be in a condition to purchase the farm. If it is found that one summer's fallow does not entirely answer the purpose of dividing and loosening the earth, it is most beneficial to continue it for another. Weeds impair the strength of a soil, and it ought to be a special object in fallowing to extirpate their growth; added to which, the application of manures, prepared and covered from the weather, until wanted, so as to exclude the absorbent influence of the sun and winds, will then be in good season. So industrious are the Flemish farmers, and so careful to insure the exuberant crops they enjoy, that, with immense labour, they cover the sandy surface of their soil by a new stratum of compost: they know and feel, that much must be given to the land before much can be required of it.

Indian corn is a species of crop, infinitely too exhausting for a country so long worked as this has been. It ought not to be cultivated in the proportion of one-fifth of its present growth. As a food for cattle, it is too heating in the warm months, and for man, rye is better, as a substitute. Carrots, parsnips, cabbages, and potatoes, will feed cattle, without that detriment to the land occasioned by rearing Indian corn. The English carrot, with proper culture,* will grow in a sandy loam to the size of a quart bottle. It is not to be surpassed for nutritive properties, and is, for milch cows, an incomparable food, enriching the quality and augmenting the quantity of their yield. Might not the beet be generally applied to the same purpose, in the absence of the requisite description of carrot seed?

With respect to wheat, I was prepared, when I first came into this state, on learning that no measures were generally taken to exchange the native seed for foreign, to expect, as I found to be the case, a degenerate and stunted produce. In time of peace, I would recommend the Polish seed, or that of the Netherlands. When these are not to be procured, the exchange with Pennsylvania, Ohio, and the new countries. Whatever be the real source and causes of the fly, so destructive to our crops of late years, this much appears certain, that its attacks are more destructive on the native seed. When a change of country shall be found, as as-

* Sow the latter end of March, and take up in October. Plough a deep furrow and harrow in your seed.

surely it will, to improve the character of the plant, its health and vigor, we shall then be better prepared to speculate upon the true causes of its imperfection.

If an apprehension, commonly entertained, of liability to ague in this state, at certain seasons, did not obtain such extensive circulation, we might hope for much benefit from the resort of industrious emigrants, who, importing an experience of the practices of other countries, would go far, by the persuasive effects of successful example, to correct the oversights in this. Of the unhealthiness we may expect to be reminded, until the enactments of the legislature for the draining of marshes throughout the state shall be more generally known to be, what they now are, completely efficacious. Ague, and remittent and intermittent fever, I have observed to be more particularly accessible to those who indulge in spirits, raw or diluted, the bane of mankind. In such persons an artificial stimulus is produced repeatedly, exposing in the intervals, the pores of the system to the chilling influence of the winds in August and September, when no doubt our atmosphere is charged with miasmata, more prejudicial than at any other period. When this reproach of our peninsula shall have subsided, we may hope to see our forest lands, yet in a state of nature, teeming with the bountiful returns of a well directed industry, attracting the transmarine settler by the advantages of price (3 to 5 dollars per acre, on credit) and securing his reward by the proximity of markets. New courses of husbandry might then be reduced to practice, to the infinite benefit of our country, new means of abridging labour and extending produce be introduced. Mr. Jefferson, in his Notes on Virginia, speaking of the wants of the country, with regard to population, and the acquisition of settlers from abroad, appears not to have taken a comprehensive view of that question: he says, 'the present desire of America is, to produce rapid population by as great importations of foreigners as possible. But is this founded in good policy?' and then deduces the negative, from an apprehension that foreigners may retain their adherence to the principles of the governments they leave, imbibed in early youth. 'These principles, with their language, they may transmit to their children. In proportion to their numbers, they will share with us the legislation. They may infuse into it their spirit, warp and bias its direction, and render it a heterogeneous, incoherent, distracted mass.' These conjectures, plausible in prospect, yet futile by experience, were penned at a time when the infancy of the country had not as yet disclosed its capabilities, when its internal energies were neither matured nor fully ascertained, and its real wants, throughout so extensive a territory, but imperfectly known. Only look at the objects who have reached our shores since the peace in Europe. Escaped from famine, penury, and despotism, the more odious by contrast, they have chosen this, the last refuge of suffering humanity, no doubt

from a conviction of superior value in the political system that secures to them freedom, happiness, and plenty.

‘——— the whips and scorns o’ th’ time,

The oppressor’s wrong, the proud man’s contumely,’

with all the black catalogue of rigours and subjections, springing from the tyranny of kings, are remembered by them, hateful only to be despised. Disgusted at these, and thankful for the blessings they now enjoy, we see them reverencing our institutions, and becoming good and useful citizens.

‘If they come of themselves,’ says Mr. Jefferson, ‘they are entitled to all the rights of citizenship, but I question the expediency of inviting them by extraordinary encouragements. I mean not that these doubts should be extended to the importation of useful artificers. The policy, of that measure depends on very different considerations. Spare no expense in obtaining them. They will, after a while, go to the plough and the hoe, but, in the mean time, they will teach us something we do not know. It is not so in agriculture. The indifferent state of that among us does not proceed from a want of knowledge merely; it is from our having such quantities of land to waste as we please. In Europe, the object is to make the most of their land, labour being abundant: here it is to make the most of our labour, land being abundant.’

The concluding remark, by his own showing, confesses the real truth of our wants—more men, more Europeans to call into action new resources of the soil, in the knowledge of which, it must be owned, we are deficient. Or why these impoverished lands and diminished crops? To substitute, if possible, the European for the coloured labourer, is undoubtedly a politic object, conducive to the best interests of the country. He is better skilled, more assiduous and careful in the performance of his duty. The black is a slovenly performer of work in general. He neither ploughs deep, nor does he seem characterized by profound perseverance. It is otherwise with the European.

The increase of foreigners, calculated for the last year, at only three per cent. on the native stock, will ever be neutralized in political effect, by the rapid strides of our own population. In Camden, thirty years ago known only by the name of Miffin’s Cross Roads, the site of but a dozen of houses, we have now one hundred and twenty buildings, including eleven stores, two meeting houses, and a spacious academy, with between four and five hundred white inhabitants—a proof of increase beyond the calculations of Franklin, and the economists on the United States in general. We have, in truth, nothing to fear, but every thing to hope from the influx of settlers among us. In connexion with the project of colonizing Africa with the free people of colour from these states, let us look forward, at no distant day, to repair the evils of a peasantry composed wholly of those persons, or of slaves. Of slavery it is difficult to speak without being prolix in reprobation,

let me here mention only one of its concomitant evils, as displayed in this free state:—the temptation to deprive coloured individuals of their legal rights, by forcibly transporting them away into the southern states; a practice denounced, it is true, by our laws, but persevered in to a degree alarming to every good man, who feels as a father, husband, friend. To no purpose is it that benevolent individuals release, gradually, their slaves from bondage, if mercenary outcasts of society are to profit by their charity. The system of *kidnapping*, as it is termed, has raised up a class of persons lost to all sense of shame or religion, and familiar with the basest moral turpitude. It has placed its votaries, as it were, out of the pale of Christian denomination. It has unfitted them for the discharge of any decent calling, as useful citizens. Accordingly we find instances of a return to the same offence—of a repetition of guilt after punishment had been inflicted.*

To obviate crime, by the most effectual method of prevention, viz. the removal of all temptation to its commission, has been the study of the wisest legislators and philanthropists in every age, and if the attainment of this delightful object be admitted as an argument in favour of the gradual commutation of slavery for hire, I shall indeed rejoice that the contemplation of a Morning's Walk has not been without its advantages.

It is one of the recommendations of researches of this nature, when they enable us to record discoveries important to man. *Pyrola umbellata* is a plant not unknown in Pennsylvania, but, it is believed, peculiar to this state, and the upper parts of that, or at least unnoticed by botanists elsewhere. In my excursions through the neighbouring woods, I find it crossing my path in the humble character of a common weed. The Indians in this quarter, tradition says, termed it the king of plants, having found it surprisingly efficacious in the cure of cancer and scrofula, and from them its name, Pipsissewa, is no doubt derived. It may be distinguished from the *Pyrola maculata*, or Spotted Pyrola, (which, growing promiscuously with the other species, and being of a poisonous quality it is necessary to guard against) by observing that the leaves of the *Pyrola umbellata* are uniformly green, and broadest near the extremity, while the leaves of the *Pyrola maculata*, or *Chimaphila umbellata*, are variegated with whitish stripes, and are widest near the last stock. This sovereign winter green is used in infusion, instead of Chinese tea. Dr. Mitchill of New York writes me, that when he was in congress, Mr. Bradley of Vermont and he, drank the infusion the greater part of a winter, as an ingredient of breakfast. It is celebrated for removing intermitting fevers, and in the last number of the Medical Repository,

* Two men, traders to Georgia, were lately convicted of this offence, and underwent the sentence of the law, at Dover, viz. to stand in the pillory for the space of one hour, with both ears nailed thereto; and, at the expiration of that time, to have the soft part of each cut off.

vol. 19, p. 107, it is mentioned as a diuretic for removing dropsy. In this state it has been greatly extolled for its efficacy against cancer, and as a purifier of the blood. The following cases occurred within my personal knowledge.

Peter Meany, 45 years of age, was seized with an affection of his back about 13 years since, termed by the physicians a wolf cancer. Nine years ago it was extracted. In three years after it again appeared, and was a second time extracted. In less than three years more it made its third appearance, and with aggravated symptoms. Despairing of the effect of the knife, the patient was induced to try the tea of Pipsissewa, the use of which, in one month, stopped the progress of the disorder, and in a short time all inconvenience was removed.

George, negro boy, about five years of age, was seriously affected in the face and lips, with danger to the left eye, the mouth considerably distorted. Medical aid had proved unavailing, but the symptoms yielded readily to the decoction of this plant, and he is now perfectly recovered.

It is much to be desired that the properties of plants in general were more accurately inquired into, and extensively known. I question if the resources of the healing art might not be infinitely extended, on a proper understanding of the virtues of simples. What boundaries have as yet ever been assigned to the science of physic? What lights does it not borrow from a materia medica perpetually enlarging! Who ever conjectured, until the discoveries of Roxburgh, the medicinal combination of the *Swietenia febrifuga*, or anti-febrile bark of the East Indies? Nature has revealed but an inferior portion of her secrets, yet is she always yielding to the inquisitive solicitations of man.

I should not conform to good example were I to omit glancing at eminent characters, native to our soil, and reared in our institutions. The names of Bayard* and of Rodney, will survive as long as profound intellect and political philosophy constitute the pride of a state. On the ocean we boast a Jones and a Macdonough, foremost among the defenders of the republic by sea; each characterised by the highest professional skill, and that true intrepidity which springs from ardent patriotism.

Such worthies have a just rank in our regard. They incite the emulation of our youth to excellence, and form in others the best ornament and safeguard of our country, which are to be found in the virtues of its citizens. Distinguished for eminence in every department of genius, the two great commonwealths of antiquity commanded the then known world by the arts of civilization and knowledge, no less than by their arms. It was not until the discouragement of learning, and the decline of that vigor of character, which freedom inspires, that we trace the real sources of their decay. In the time of national prosperity, says Sallust, good conduct both in peace and war, characterized our citizens. By

* Mr. Bayard was born in Philadelphia.

two means, valour in war, whereby peace issued, and equity in peace, they supported themselves and the commonwealth. "Domini militiæque boni mores colebantur. Duabus artibus, audacia in bello, ubi pax evenerat, æquitate, sequæ remque publicam curabant."

ART. V.—On Training.

IT is well known to every person conversant in the modern management of race horses, that there is no dependance to be placed either on their speed, their wind, or their bottom, unless they previously undergo a period of discipline in respect of diet and exercise, which shall insure their muscular exertions to be at the maximum of capability, immediately preceding the hour of competition.

Among the Greeks of old, the athletæ, or wrestlers, pancratiasts, &c., at the olympic games, regularly underwent a course of dietetic discipline previous to their public contests: this discipline, which seems to have introduced our modern training, consisted in

1st. Moderate evacuations, to get rid of superfluous corpulence.

2. Drink was allowed but in small quantity: the diet was chiefly of animal food; pork was preferred. Galen says, that if they lived even for one day on any other kind of food, they perceived a diminution of strength.

3. Abstinence from wine and other debilitating indulgencies. The ancients were not quite ignorant of the modern axiom, that gout is the offspring of Bacchus and Venus.

4. They were allowed to sleep as long as the disposition to sleep continued.

5. Exercise gradually increased to the maximum that the person in training could bear with moderate fatigue.

6. The warm bath, long continued frictions, and anointing with oil.

The boxers used to practice with the cestus, in striking at the air, to exercise the arms: an exercise more severe than the modern sparring, as any person may experience on trial. St. Paul alludes to this, when he says, 'so fight I, not as one who beateth the air.'

The practice of training, however, among the gentlemen of the turf in England, in which country only it is known as a science, appears to have commenced, from observing the healthy state that was consequent on sweating the jockies down to the required match weight. When not carried so far as to debilitate, which it may be, the benefits of sweating so as to diminish the weight of the whole body about one-thirtieth, is manifest in the clearness of the eye, the suppleness of the limbs, and the spring in the step.

From the jockies, the practice was transferred to the horses, who were purged and sweated, previous to being put upon training exercise. At length the diet also in quality and in quantity

was attended to, and the whole system matured to its present extent. The same system also has been very successfully applied to the training of game cocks.

From the horses, when the modern amusement of boxing matches became fashionable, it was transferred to the boxers, and then to the persons engaged to run against time. Those who have never attended to the subject, are not aware of the increase of health, strength, and activity, that may be thus acquired by persons who will submit to the discipline usually imposed; which is little more than full exercise, accompanied and supported by generous diet, nutritive but not stimulating. Among all the remedies for gout, that opprobrium medicorum, there is none that promises to be so thoroughly and radically efficacious, as a course of training for about three months.

In England, this has been foreseen, and sir John Sinclair in his Code of Health has collected all the information he could, upon the various methods of training race horses, boxers, and pedestrian performers against time. The information thus collected, is likely to turn out a public benefit, because it is certainly applicable to every kind of debility and languor, induced by too much indulgence in stimulating food, accompanied by too little muscular exertion.

Captain Barclay, the pedestrian, seems to have studied this subject with more assiduity than any other person, and has been more successful in his training than most of those who have undertaken to direct such a course of preliminary exercise. His method has been detailed at length by Mr. Thom, who published some years ago the History of Aberdeen.

As the methods of training seem founded on just notions of the animal economy, and promise to be applicable in more cases than those to which they have usually been adapted, your readers may probably be glad to know, at least the outline, of the science of training.

The two great purposes meant to be effected by training, whatever mode be adopted, are, to get rid of superfluous fat, and superfluous moisture, and to increase muscular power. This is done

1. By purging at intervals.
2. By sweating at intervals.
3. By using food that contains the greatest portion of nutriment in the smallest compass.
4. By using food of the most simple kind, and least likely to disorder the stomach, or induce difficulty of digestion.
5. By a sparing use of liquids.
6. By a sparing use of stimulating liquors in particular.
7. By exercise daily but cautiously increased, until the maximum of exertion be ascertained.
8. By particular attention to the state of the skin. This is better understood by those who train horses, than by those who train men.

When a horse is put in training, and appears to be what would usually be called in good order, that is, rather full and fleshy, and who has not been lately accustomed to a regular course of exercise, a purging ball is given to him, which is worked off by warm mashes. When this is over, he is exercised moderately, under warm clothing, till he breaks out into a gentle sweat, which is encouraged by continuing the exercise, and by warm clothing in the stable; when the perspiration has ceased, he is washed with tepid water and soap all over, well scraped, and rubbed till he is dry, and till the hair of the skin shines. Frequent exercise for three or four days is given to him, but not violent, nor of long duration at a time; each time he comes home after exercise, which is carried so far as to produce moisture upon the skin, he is carefully scraped, and when dry, undergoes a long-continued rubbing, his legs and pastern joints in particular, being washed in tepid water and rubbed till they become dry. He is well bedded, and care is taken that the floor of the stall is much less sloped than it usually is in the common stables of England, where, for the purpose of enabling the urine to run off freely, a horse stands much higher with his fore legs than with his hind legs: hence in many cases swellings and grease appear in horses that have not thin legs, which is the usual mark of blood.

After three or four days the purging and sweating is repeated, and the same course of treatment, as to exercise and rubbing, is pursued. The food consists of oats, without hay; oats are sometimes interchanged with other grain, but as the intention is not to excite appetite, or accumulate flesh, there does not appear sufficient reason for varying the food. Moreover, the stomach requires something else beside mere nutriment; it calls for the sensation of fulness, or something approaching to it; and although this is not to be indulged in a system of training, yet the parts of the oat that do not contribute to nutriment, assist in giving this required sensation of fulness to a sufficient degree, and supercede the necessity of hay. Upon the whole, no food seems so well adapted for horse feed as oats, especially in England, where they grow fuller and larger than in this country, and where they are never used till they have lost all superfluous moisture in dry granaries. New oats in England are unnecessarily diuretic and weakening. Toward the close of the training, for the last ten days, a moderate quantity of beans, in the proportion of about one-fourth in quantity to the oats, are allowed, as being somewhat more nutritive, and somewhat more stimulating, and required by the increased exercise the horse is required to undergo. It is to be observed, that exercise should precede food, and never be given when the horse's stomach is full. Exercise immediately after a meal always impedes digestion: this has been ascertained by direct experiment with pointer dogs.

Purging and sweating are sometimes resorted to about ten days before the period of racing. But it seems to me that this should

not take place as a matter of course, but only when the state of the horse's health appears to require it. A good jockey will easily know this, by the state of the skin, and the appearance of the eye, which are the only marks that can certainly be depended on, in conjunction with his movements during exercise.

During all this time, it is necessary that his oats should be examined and well sifted, so as to be perfectly clean; for any the slightest cause of indigestion will make a very great difference in the state of the horse's body. The water also should be attended to; if it be the water of a country containing limestone, or other earthy and saline deposits on boiling, which can be known by examining the inside of tea kettles frequently used, the water should be boiled, and suffered to deposit its sediment, and stand to be cold. For the same reason, the racks and mangers, and the vessels out of which the horse drinks should be perfectly clean, and frequently examined with this view; for hardly any animal is so nice in these particulars as horses that have been well bred and are in full health, with all their senses in perfection.

Thorough air, and the most perfect cleanliness, is necessary in the stables. Generally where these things are not attended to, horses have defects of sight, and are consequently liable to start, to shy, and to trip, owing to the consequences of dark stables, and the pungent odour of urine permitted to remain too long.

During the whole of this time, the greatest attention is to be paid to currying, washing, brushing and rubbing the skin: if the exhalant vessels are in healthy action, and obstructions removed as far as possible, the horse will be generally healthy. His digestion also will, by this means, be greatly improved, for the stomach and the skin sympathize to a surprising degree.

When a horse has undergone this treatment for a month, and when he has been judiciously managed, the eye will appear manifestly more bright and speaking—the motions of his head will be quicker—the boundaries of the muscles will become more manifest through his skin—the step will be more elastic—and the animal more lively and playful.

It used to be the fashion to give saffron balls, with aromatics, a short time previous to the races, but it is doubtful whether any of these artificial stimulants are useful: in the intermediate time between the courses, some moderate stimulant may be exhibited, to counteract the exhaustion consequent upon great exertion, but saffron is not the substance, nor do I know of any substance that can be given for this purpose, which does not threaten to induce weakness by disordering the stomach. I should be apt to think that if any thing, a small quantity of madeira or sherry wine would answer a better purpose than any thing else; but I do not know that any experiments have been instituted; so as to give us accurate knowledge, what are the kinds of stimuli, that to a horse will stimulate without nauseating.

Every jockey, who is also by profession a trainer, has his own secret and nostrum; but it is evident to all those who understand the true principles of the animal economy, that food, air, and exercise must be given on the system here laid down, to be successful.

The training of modern boxers proceeds in much the same way; but certain notions and nostrums are admitted, which do more harm than good.

A boxer begins his course of training, first by taking a cathartic of an ounce and a half, or two ounces of Glauber's or Epsom salts, or of soda phosphorata, to which last there is no objection, when there is no disposition to hemorrhoidal affections; in which case both soda phosphorata and aloes are always interdicted by medical men. It appears to me, that generally, an emetic ought to be the first thing, worked off with chamomile tea, or any simple diluting drink. Then a cathartic, which ought not to be encouraged, as it usually is, by diluting drinks, but ought to be strong enough to stimulate, of itself, the bowels to a considerable discharge.

The patient, is then permitted to feed and exercise moderately for three or four days, when his course of sweating commences. This is managed by taking exercise under clothing more than usual, till a profuse perspiration breaks out; when this symptom takes place, the exercise is not continued to fatigue, but the patient goes home, gets into bed, and takes weak whey, or other warm stimulating drinks to encourage the perspiration. When this is over, the common practice is not, as it ought to be, to go into a tepid bath for twenty minutes, and to have the whole body well washed and well brushed with fine soap and warm water, till the skin be perfectly cleaned from all kind of perspiration and other accumulations that stop up the pores of the exhalant vessels: the use of brushing, moreover, is not only this, but it stimulates those vessels, when they are clean, to more regular and healthy action; it invigorates after fatigue, it assists digestion by sympathy with the stomach, and it is in all respects one of the most useful parts in the whole system of training, and generally the most neglected. The Asiatics know the value of brushes, soap, and warm water; and after that, of long continued friction, until water will wet the skin, and not run off as if it were oiled, leaving the surface in the same state as if water had never been applied. There is no such thing as cleaning the skin without brushes, soap, and water. The ancients well knew this, and their constant use of flannel, not too often changed, made the system of warm bathing, brushing, and oiling, absolutely necessary to cleanliness and health. The Asiatics add that most useful practice, champooing, or kneading and pressing the muscles, so as to remove occasional obstructions by the application of a slight degree of regular pressure with the knuckles, and by pulling and stretching the joints and limbs. In Europe, these practices, so

healthy, so cleanly, so comfortable, so enlivening, do not prevail in any considerable degree; and in America, we are not only strangers to them entirely, but almost even to the luxury of a warm bath; which in Philadelphia loses half its use and half its comfort, for want of attendants, soap, brushes, and flannels. I dwell upon this subject, because the great importance of the practice is not sufficiently known or attended to.

The boxer now commences his system of diet and of exercise.

- He goes to bed early: he rises when the sun has cleared the air of moisture: he uses no exercise out of doors in damp or raining weather; but from the time he rises to the hour of going to bed, he is continually occupied by his regular meals, by constant exercise, and by rest for a short time in the middle of the day, when fatigue requires it; but exercise to the amount of fatigue, ought not to be undergone more than once a day; for fatigue debilitates. Exercise should be carried to the boundary line of fatigue, but not farther. When fatigue is induced, the warm bath, and friction, with or without a short sleep, should be indulged in. During the waking hours, however, no idleness, no lounging, is admissible. Walking fast, running, sparring, the poisoning of the body, the exercise of both hands indiscriminately, should alternate, so as to leave no time perfectly unemployed, except for an hour or two after dinner.

As to food and drink.

The usual food prescribed is beef or mutton: all young meats, all salted meats, all pork and fowl, are prohibited. In this case the opinions and practices of the moderns are opposed to those of the ancients, who, of all food, preferred pork. I think experiments ought to be instituted on this subject.

Fat is also prohibited. So is butter for the same reason. Now, there is not a point regarding nutriment better established, than that lean meat, or the lean of meat alone, will not support a man under common fatigue. Judge Cooper, in his Emporium, has accumulated the authorities to this purpose, so as to set the question at rest. Nor is mutton so nutritive as beef. Upon the whole, in the present state of our knowledge, that kind of beef, where the lean is marbled with fat, seems to afford the best and most perfect kind of animal nourishment: for variety it may be alternated with mutton, not excluding the fat: and, as I should think, upon ancient authority, occasionally with pork, provided the animal be not less than two years old, which I consider as a point not to be dispensed with in this kind of meat; and which probably occasioned the difference between the effects produced by the pork of the ancients and the pork of the moderns.

A moderate quantity of good fresh butter may be allowed therefore, but none that has undergone fire. Nor is there any reason for prohibiting eggs, if boiled soft. Hard-boiled eggs, and poached eggs, cannot be eaten with impunity.

Vegetables are uniformly prohibited. I think this prohibition ought not to extend to a small proportion of mealy potatoes. Perhaps the acescent vegetables are properly prohibited. Too much even of potatoes would give the sensation of fulness, without a sufficiency of corresponding nutriment.

Leavened or fermented bread, is always and properly forbidden. Biscuits and rusks supply the place.

Suppers are discountenanced: there should be no meal after dinner.

All fermented liquors, such as beer, ale, and porter, should be forbidden. But the generality of trainers allow ale: it seems to me too heavy, flatulent, and narcotic. I should consider the best beverage to be water, or wine and water, not exceeding three glasses of the very best sherry or madeira. Port is too acid and acescent. Ardent spirits too stimulating. At all events, the quantity of drink taken in the twenty-four hours should be gradually diminished, so as to use as small a quantity as is consistent with health.

All spices, and pickles are, for the same reason, prohibited; the system being, to enable the patient, by means of nutriment, to support long-continued fatigue; but that nutriment ought to be compressed into as small a bulk as is consistent with comfortable feeling.

The training ought never to last less than two months: three are much better; so that all the changes produced, may put on the character of habits, and be assimilated to the system of animal economy, without deranging any function. These beneficial changes, if continued for a short time only, do not harmonize with the *maniere d'être*, the idiosyncrasy, if I may so say of the person requiring them: but if long continued, they become a part of his mode of life, which, from habit, nature will require to be continued, so as to preserve health in the highest perfection.

During all this time, the tepid bath, with brushes and soap, should be used at least three times a week; and friction, with the flesh-brush, or flannel, every night. The tepid bath should never be continued longer than twenty minutes, else it debilitates; as is well known to persons who have the care of lunatic patients.

Purges and sweats after the first or second, should never be introduced for the mere purpose of purging and sweating. They should be called for by some appearance or indication in the state of health of the patient, before they are subsequently resorted to. At first, they are clearly indicated in all cases; because the usual mode of living in society is too full for the exercise usually taken.

During the last fortnight, the whole force should be put out in some appropriate exercise, even to fatigue, and the strength supported by increasing the period of rest, and the quantity of food, if needful. For, at this period, it becomes necessary to habituate the muscles, in some degree, to the quantum of exertion they are soon to undergo.

By this means, the muscles of the body will be well marked—they will not be obstructed, and the interstices will not be filled up, and the contour rounded by superfluous fat or fluid—the lungs will also play free from obstruction—the skin will be clear and transparent—the eye bright—the step elastic—and there will be felt that propensity to muscular motion, which is the great character of youth.

In this state, the pugilist may safely venture to enter the ring, against equal strength and talents, which has not been so treated; and he will assuredly come off victor. At the last great match between Molyneux, the black, and Cribb, who had been trained by captain Barclay, of Ury, Molyneux saw at once, when Cribb mounted the stage, that he himself was destined to be beaten, owing entirely to the difference of constitution, produced by difference of training.

Such are my own notions, founded upon recollection of what I have heard and read, and observed, of the practices of training. In regard to horses, I have no book to refer to; but the principles are obvious.

In February, 1813, was published an account of the performances of celebrated pedestrians, during the last and present century, with a full narrative of captain Barclay's public and private matches, and an essay on training, by the author of the *History of Aberdeen*. (Walter Thom.)

The following account of captain Barclay's method of training, is taken from that work, and the author proposes it as a foundation of a system of training to be introduced into the army. It is an exemplification of the principles above laid down.

The pedestrian, who may be supposed in tolerable condition, enters upon his training with a regular course of physick, which consists of three doses. Glauber's salts are generally preferred; and from one ounce and a half to two ounces are taken each time, with an interval of four days between. After having gone through the course of physick, he commences his regular exercise, which is gradually increased as he proceeds in his training. When the object in view is the accomplishment of a pedestrian match, his regular exercise may be from twenty to twenty-four miles a day. He must rise at five in the morning,* run half a mile, at the top of his speed, up hill, and then walk six miles at a moderate pace, coming in about seven to breakfast; which should consist of beef-stakes, or mutton-chops, underdone, with stale bread and old beer.† After breakfast, he must again walk six miles at a moderate

* This should be regulated by the time of the year, and the situation of the place he lives in. It is never good to rise before the sun. Six o'clock is a better hour as a general rule, especially in England and in Scotland, which is still more damp.

† All old beer is hard; that is, acid: and of course apt to produce indigestion. Beer and ale, at any rate, are bad drinks; they are narcotic, producing disinclination to exertion. The true rule is, to exhaust the excitability by exercise alone.

pace, and at twelve lie down in bed, without his clothes, for half an hour. On getting up, he must walk four miles, and return by four to dinner,* which should also be beef-stakes, or mutton-chops, with bread and beer, as at breakfast. Immediately† after dinner, he must resume his exercise, by running half a mile, at the top of his speed; and walking six miles at a moderate pace. He takes no more exercise for that day, but retires to bed about eight, and next morning proceeds in the same manner.

After having gone on in this regular course for three or four weeks, the pedestrian must take a four mile SWEAT: which is produced by running four miles in flannel, at the top of his speed. Immediately on returning, a hot liquor is prescribed, in order to promote perspiration, of which he must take an English pint. It is termed the *sweating liquor*, and is composed of the following ingredients, viz. one ounce of caraway seed, half an ounce of coriander seed, one ounce of liquorice root, and half an ounce of sugar candy, mixed with two bottles of cider, and boiled down to one half:‡ he is then put to bed in his flannels, and being covered with six or eight pairs of blankets, and a feather bed; must remain in this state from twenty to twenty-five minutes, when he is taken out and rubbed perfectly dry.§ Being then well wrapped in his great coat, he walks out gently for two miles, and returns to breakfast, which, on such occasions, should consist of a roasted fowl. He afterwards proceeds with his usual exercise. These sweats are continued weekly, till within a few days of the performance of the match;¶ or, in other words, he must undergo three or four of these operations. If the stomach of the pedestrian be foul, an emetic or two must be given about a week before the conclusion of the training, and he is now supposed to be in the highest condition.

Besides his usual and regular exercise, a person under training ought to employ himself, in the intervals, in every kind of exertion which tends to activity, such as cricket, bowls, throwing quoits,

* From seven o'clock to four (nine hours) is far too long an interval of fasting. Fasting should not be continued with exercise beyond seven hours: by that time, in a healthy man, the digestive organs require a new supply. As a general rule, no food should be taken but at intervals of six or seven hours.

† This is obviously against Nature, whose rule is, rest after repletion. Exercise, immediately after a hearty meal, not only impedes digestion, but injures the play of the lungs and diaphragm. The hard running, should take place, neither at the beginning or end of the exercise, but should be preceded and followed by walking.

‡ In lieu of this unscientific mixture, well calculated indeed to sicken the stomach, let the person under discipline take a quart of thin wine whey, with half a grain of emetic tartar in it.

§ No mere rubbing will take the grease off the skin. Brushes and soap are necessary before rubbing.

¶ These sweats put the exhalants so often to the top of their speed, that they ought to be discontinued at least a week before the match, unless manifests increase of weight calls for them. The person in training should be weighed twice a week at least.

&c.,* that during the whole of each day, both body and mind may be constantly occupied.

The diet, or regimen, is the next point. As the intention of the trainer is to preserve the strength of the pedestrian, he must take care to keep him in good condition, by nourishing food. Animal diet alone is prescribed, and beef and mutton are preferred. The lean of fat beef cooked in stakes, with very little salt,† is the best, and it should be rather underdone than otherwise. Mutton being reckoned easy of digestion,‡ may be occasionally given, to vary the diet and gratify the taste. The legs§ of fowls are highly esteemed. It is preferable to have the meat boiled; as much of its nutritive qualities are lost by roasting¶ and broiling. Biscuit and stale bread, are the only preparations of vegetable matter, which are permitted to be given; and every thing inducing flatulence, must be carefully avoided.** Veal and lamb are never allowed; nor pork, which operates as a laxative on some people; and all fat or greasy substances are prohibited,†† as they induce bile, and consequently injure the stomach. But it has been proved by experience, that the lean of meat contains more nourishment than the fat;‡‡ and in every case the most substantial food is preferable to every other kind. Vegetables, such as turnips, carrots,§§ and potatoes, are never given, as they are watery, and of difficult digestion. On the same principle fish must be avoided; and, besides, they are not sufficiently nutritious.¶¶ Neither butter or cheese is allowed: the one being very indigestible, the other apt to turn rancid*** on the stomach. Eggs are also forbidden, excepting the yolks

* A pugilist should exercise his arms, at throwing quoits, and in a blacksmith's shop. Cricket is liable to too many accidents. A pedestrian should exercise his legs alone.

† Salt greatly assists digestion.

‡ It is not therefore nutritive. Venison, the meat easiest of digestion, is the least nutritive, so far as we know. Hence such quantities are eaten by epicures with impunity.

§ Quin's recommendation to his friend was, 'the thigh of every fowl.'

¶ In roasting, meat loses 25 per cent.; in boiling; the albumen is skimmed off, and much of the gelatin is lost in the liquor. But broiling is exactly the same as roasting. By boiling, meat loses about 32 per cent.

** Hence, beer of all kinds should be avoided.

†† Fat and greasy substances, are two different things; fat, when cooked, may be eaten with impunity; but what a cook would technically call greasy, contains usually sebatic acid developed by the fire, and is certainly unwholesome.

‡‡ The direct contrary is proved by experience. Judge Cooper's remarks on this subject in the *Emporium*, are conclusive, so far as the appeal to experience extends.

§§ Carrots, are a well known remedy for broken winded horses, and broken winded (asthmatic) men. As to potatoes, ask an Irishman if a mealy potatoe is difficult of digestion.

¶¶ Fish is very nutritious: they contain a much larger portion of gelatin than flesh. They might be admitted with meat, once a week, with good effect.

*** Fresh butter, in moderate quantities, never turns rancid: cheese sometimes does.

taken raw in the morning* and it must be remarked, that salt, spicerics, and all kind of seasoning, with the exception of vinegar, are prohibited.†

With respect to liquors, they must be always taken cold: and home-brewed beer, old,‡ but not bottled, is the best.§ A little red wine,¶ however, may be given to those who are not fond of malt liquor: but never more than half a pint after dinner.

Too much liquor swells the abdomen, and of course injures the breath. The quantity of beer, therefore, should not exceed three pints during the whole day; and it must be taken with breakfast and dinner, no supper being allowed. Water is never given alone; and ardent spirits are strictly prohibited, however diluted. It is an established rule to avoid liquids as much as possible: and no more liquor of any kind is allowed to be taken, than what is merely requisite to quench the thirst. Milk is never allowed, as it curdles on the stomach. Soups are not used: nor is any liquid taken warm, but gruel or broth, to promote the operation of the physic, and the sweating liquor mentioned before. The broth must be cooled, in order to take off the fat, and it may be again warmed; or beef tea may be used in the same manner; with little or no salt.

In the days between the purges, the pedestrian must be fed as usual; strictly adhering to the nourishing diet by which he is invigorated.

If you approve of this dissertation, I propose to continue it, with application to some of the common forms of disease; and to add the arguments by which the more sensible amateurs of pugilism in England defend a practice, which to us seems so brutish and degrading.

C.

ART. VI.—*Modern Greece. A Poem.* 8vo. London, Murray, 1817.

[From the *Edinburgh Magazine.*]

IN our reviews of poetical productions, the better efforts of genius hold out to us a task at once more useful and delightful than those of inferior merit. In the former the beauties predominate, and expose while they excuse the blemishes. But the public taste would receive no benefit from a detail of mediocrity, relieved only by the censure of faults uncompensated by excellencies.

* Eggs cooked soft, are certainly unobjectionable. The albumen is a necessary part of the animal muscle.

† With so much animal food, a small quantity of vinegar may be admitted; but salt seems absolutely necessary, from custom; and indeed all animals seem the better for it.

‡ Home-brewed beer, when old, is generally acid; and therefore liable to disagree with the stomach.

§ All bottled beer is unwholesomely acid: any one can try this with a piece of litmus paper.

¶ Red wine is always acid. Rich old madeira, or good sherry wine, which is better, are the wines that ought to be used. Four glasses ought to be the utmost limit.

We have great pleasure in calling the attention of our readers to the beautiful poem before us, which we believe to be the work of the same lady who last year put her name to the second edition of another poem on a kindred subject, "*The Restoration of the Works of art to Italy*," namely, Mrs. Hemans of North Wales. That the author's fame has not altogether kept pace with her merit, we are inclined to think is a reproach to the public. Poetry is at present experiencing the fickleness of fashion, and may be said to have had its day. Very recently, the *reading* public, as the phrase is, was immersed in poetry, but seems to have had enough; and excepting always that portion of it who are found to relish genuine poetry on its own intrinsic account, and will never tire of the exquisite enjoyment which it affords, the said public seldom read poetry at all.

It was very natural for poets in their finer sympathies, to be lured into the mistake that, like themselves, "the million" loved "music, image, sentiment, and thought," with a love "never to die." They did not observe that the attachment was greatly too sudden to give reasonable hopes of constancy. For more than two hundred years the best poetry in Europe was to be found in our own country; yet a very small portion of the educated classes seems ever to have taken any warm interest in these treasures. How few have read Chaucer or Spencer, or studied Shakspeare, except in the theatre. Upon what multitudes has Milton thrown away his lofty strain,—Dryden his fire,—Pope his exquisite polish,—Thomson his music and grace,—and his exquisite and impassioned descriptions of nature. Poetical excellence addresses itself to higher tastes and finer sensibilities than are bestowed on the bulk of mankind; and to all who are not so endowed, it is a very tiresome sort of pastime.

An era however approached. "*The Lay*" converted thousands, and "*Marmion*" tens of thousands, and the *whole* world read poetry. Had Mr. Scott given out the same quantity of poetical thoughts and images, in poems constructed like "*The Task*," or "*The Pleasures of Hope*," his readers would not have numbered one for a hundred; yet the accessary ninety-nine, attracted by the seductive form in which he has actually appeared, firmly believe that they have all been regularly imbued with a taste for genuine poetry. The whole secret is, that Mr. Scott gave to the world a series of brilliant romances, and turned into this new-made channel all who ever in their lives read and relished fictitious compositions. All the poets, good and bad, forthwith wrote metrical romances—from the time of Gertrude of Wyoming to that of Lalla Rookh; and to the exhibition of human passion and action in well-conceived plots and catastrophes, more than to any change in their mere poetry, is to be imputed that powerful stimulus which several of the masters of the present day have succeeded in applying to the formerly-rather-languid feelings of the public. There needs not the fine imagery, the exquisite metaphors, the delightful allu-

sions of genuine poetry to do this. There is no want of excitability in the multitude, by pathos skilfully administered;—the electrical effects of sympathy in the theatre prove it: but these emotions are not imputable necessarily to the poetical form in which the popular sentiments are conveyed. A justly admired author has lately shown, that this can be done in a very powerful manner in a prose narrative. It is impossible to work such effects by mere song, with all its imagery and all its eloquence.

But so little is that excitement which the bulk of readers covet necessarily connected with poetry, that these readers have tired even of romances in a metrical form, and are regarding all their late rythmical favourites alike, with that sort of ingratitude with which repletion would lead them to regard a banquet when the dishes are removing from the table. But this is no proof that these great poets have forfeited their title to be admired. They are fixed orbs, which stand just where they did, and shine just as they were wont, although they seem to decline to the world which revolves the opposite way. But if the world will turn from the poet, whatever be his merit, there is an end of his popularity, inasmuch as the most approved conductor of the latter is the multitude, as essentially as is the air of the sound of his voice. Profit will also fail, from the lack of purchasers; and poetry, high as it may intrinsically seem, must fall, commercially speaking, to its ancient proverbially unprofitable level. Yet poetry will still be poetry, however it may cease *to pay*; and although the acclaim of multitudes is one thing, and the still small voice of genuine taste and feeling another, the nobler incense of the latter will ever be its reward.

Our readers will now cease to wonder, that an author like the present, who has had no higher aim than to regale the imagination with imagery, warm the heart with sentiment and feeling, and delight the ear with music, without the foreign aid of tale or fable, has hitherto written to a few, and passed almost unnoticed by the multitude.

With the exception of Lord Byron, who has made the theme peculiarly his own, no one has more feelingly contrasted ancient with modern Greece.

The poem on the restoration of the Louvre Collection has, of course, more allusions to ancient Rome; and nothing can be more spirited than the passages in which the author invokes for modern Rome the return of her ancient glories. In a cursory but graphic manner, some of the most celebrated of the ancient statues are described. Referring our readers with great confidence to the work themselves, our extracts may be limited.

The Venus restored to Florence is thus apostrophized:

‘ There thou, fair offspring of immortal Mind!
Love’s radiant goddess, Idol of mankind!
Once the bright object of Devotion’s vow,
Shalt claim from taste a kindred worship now.

Oh! who can tell what beams of heavenly light,
Flash'd o'er the sculptor's intellectual sight;
How many a glimpse, reveal'd to him alone,
Made brighter beings, nobler worlds his own;
Ere, like some vision sent the earth to bless,
Burst into life, thy pomp of loveliness!

Ancient Rome is addressed with much sublimity, and the Laocoon most feelingly portrayed. The Apollo, however, is very unjustly dismissed with six of the most indifferent lines in the poem. Many of the Louvre statues being Roman worthies, the poem concludes with the following striking allusion to their restoration:

'Souls of the lofty! whose undying names
Rouse the young bosom still to noblest aims;
Oh! with your images could fate restore
Your own high spirit to your sons once more;
Patriots and heroes! could those flames return,
That bade your hearts with Freedom's ardour burn;
Then from the sacred ashes of the first,
Might a new Rome in phoenix-grandeur burst!
With one bright glance dispel th' horizon's gloom,
With one loud call wake Empire from the tomb;
Bind round her brows her own triumphal crown,
Lift her dread Ægis, with majestic frown,
Unchain her Eagle's wing, and guide its flight,
To bathe its plumage in the fount of Light.'

The poem more immediately before us is of much greater length, and, we are inclined to think, of higher merit than its predecessor. The measure is like the Spenserian, though different. The experiment was bold, but it has not failed in the author's hands; and the music is upon the whole good. We would willingly quote largely from this poem, but have already outwritten our limits. We have seldom been more delighted than we were with the first nine stanzas, and cannot resist giving the 8th and 9th.

VIII.

'Where soft the sunbeams play, the zephyrs blow,
'Tis hard to deem that misery can be nigh;
Where the clear heavens in blue transparence glow,
Life should be calm and cloudless as the sky;
—Yet o'er the low, dark dwelling of the dead,
Verdure and flowers in summer-bloom may smile,
And ivy-boughs their graceful drapery spread
In green luxuriance o'er the ruined pile;
And mantling woodbine veil the withered tree,—
And thus it is, fair land, forsaken Greece! with thee.

IX.

For all the loveliness, and light and bloom,
That yet are thine, surviving many a storm,
Are but as heaven's warm radiance on the tomb,

The rose's blush that masks the canker worm:—
And thou art desolate—thy morn hath past
So dazzling in the splendour of its way,
That the dark shades that night hath o'er thee cast
Throw tenfold gloom around thy deep decay.
Once proud in freedom, still in ruin fair,
Thy fate hath been unmatched—in glory and despair.'

After the same manner, and in the same strain of allusion, are stanzas 28th and 29th. Athens is thus beautifully apostrophized:

LXX.

'But thou, fair Attica! whose rocky bound
All art and nature's richest gifts enshrined,
Thou little sphere, whose soul illumined round
Concentrated each sunbeam of the mind;
Who, as the summit of some Alpine height
Glow's earliest, latest, with the blush of day,
Didst first imbibe the splendour of the light,
And smile the longest in its lingering ray,
Oh! let us gaze on thee, and fondly deem
The past awhile restored, the present but a dream.'

The reader must have recourse to the poem for much that follows in the same strain. The following description is not exceeded, in that force and brilliancy of poetic painting which sets the object before us, by any poetry of the age; the passage is introductory to some fine allusions to the Elgin Marbles, which adds much to the elegance of the poem.

LXXIV.

'Still be that cloud withdrawn—oh! mark on high,
Crowning yon hill, with temples richly graced,
That fane, august in perfect symmetry,
The purest model of Athenian taste
Fair Parthenon! thy Doric pillars rise
In simple dignity, thy marble's hue
Unsullied shines, relieved by brilliant skies,
That round thee spread their deep ethereal blue;
And art o'er all thy light proportions throws
The harmony of grace, the beauty of repose.

LXXV.

And lovely o'er thee sleeps the sunny glow,
When morn and eve in tranquil splendour reign,
And on thy sculptures, as they smile, bestow
Hues that the pencil emulates in vain.
Then the fair forms by Phidias wrought, unfold
Each latent grace, developing in light,
Catch from soft clouds of purple and of gold,
Each tint that passes, tremulously bright;
And seem indeed whate'er devotion deems,
While so suffused with heaven, so mingling with its beams.

LXXVI.

But oh! what words the vision may portray
 The form of sanctitude that guards thy shrine?
 There stands thy goddess, robed in war's array,
 Supremely glorious, awfully divine!
 With spear and helm she stands, and flowing vest,
 And sculptured ægis, to perfection wrought,
 And on each heavenly lineament imprest,
 Calmly sublime, the majesty of thought;
 The pure intelligence, the chaste repose,—
 All that a poet's dream around Minerva throws.'

The following lines touch with a glowing pencil the frieze of the Parthenon now so well known.

XCII.

'Mark—on the storied frieze the graceful train,
 The holy festival's triumphal throng,
 In fair procession, to Minerva's fane,
 With many a sacred symbol move along.
 There every shade of bright existence trace,
 The fire of youth, the dignity of age;
 The matron's calm austerity of grace,
 The ardent warrior, the benignant sage;
 The nymph's light symmetry, the chief's proud mien,
 Each ray of beauty caught and mingled in the scene.'

The other Elgin Marbles are alluded to as follows:

XCVI.

'Gaze on yon forms, corroded and defaced—
 Yet there the germ of future glory lies!
 Their virtual grandeur could not be erased,
 It clothes them still, though veiled from common eyes.
 They once were gods and heroes—and beheld
 As the best guardians of their native scene;
 And hearts of warriors, sages, bards, have swelled
 With awe that owned their sovereignty of mien.
 —Ages have vanished since those hearts were cold,
 And still those shattered forms retain their godlike mould.'

The poem then gives a prophetic vision of the future trophies of our own country in the fine arts, the sole wreath yet unwon by her, and concludes with the following lines:

'So, should dark ages o'er thy glory sweep,
 Should *thine* e'er be as now are Grecian plains,
 Nations unborn shall track thine own blue deep
 To hail thy shore, to worship thy remains;
 Thy mighty monuments with reverence trace,
 And cry, "this ancient soil hath nursed a glorious race!"'

We now take our leave of the author, with a hope that we shall soon meet with her again, and earnestly recommend her work to all the lovers of elegant classical allusion and genuine poetry.

ART. VII.—*Sketch of a Tradition, related by a Monk, in Switzerland.*—From the Edinburgh Monthly Magazine.

MR. EDITOR,

IN the course of an excursion, during the autumn of last year, through the wildest and most secluded parts of Switzerland, I took up my residence, during one stormy night, in a convent of capuchin friars, not far from Altorf, the birth-place of the famous William Tell. In the course of the evening, one of the fathers related a story, which, both on account of the interest which it is naturally calculated to excite, and the impressive manner in which it was told, produced a very strong effect upon my mind. I noted it down briefly in the morning, in my journal, preserving as much as possible the old man's style, but it has no doubt lost much by translation.

Having just read lord Byron's drama, "Manfred," there appears to me such a striking coincidence in some characteristic features, between the story of that performance and the Swiss tradition, that without further comment, I extract the latter from my journal, and send it for your perusal. It relates to an ancient family, now extinct, whose names I neglected to write down, and have now forgotten; but that is a matter of little importance.

His soul was wild, impetuous, and uncontrollable. He had a keen perception of the faults and vices of others, without the power of correcting his own; alike sensible of the nobility, and of the darkness of his moral constitution, although unable to cultivate the one to the exclusion of the other.

In extreme youth, he led a lonely and secluded life in the solitude of a Swiss valley, in company with an only brother, some years older than himself, and a young female relative, who had been educated along with them from her birth. They lived under the care of an aged uncle, the guardian of those extensive domains which the brothers were destined jointly to inherit.

A peculiar melancholy, cherished and increased by the utter seclusion of that sublime region, had, during the period of their infancy, preyed upon the mind of their father, and finally produced the most dreadful result. The fear of a similar tendency in the minds of the brothers, induced their protector to remove them, at an early age, from the solitude of their native country. The elder was sent to a German university, and the younger completed his education in one of the Italian schools.

After the lapse of many years, the old guardian died, and the elder of the brothers returned to his native valley; he there formed an attachment to the lady with whom he had passed his infancy; and she, after some fearful forebodings, which were unfortunately silenced by the voice of duty and of gratitude, accepted of his love, and became his wife.

In the meantime, the younger brother had left Italy, and travelled over the greater part of Europe. He mingled with the world, and gave full scope to every impulse of his feelings. But that world, with the exception of certain hours of boisterous passion and excitement, afforded him little pleasure, and made no lasting impression upon his heart. His greatest joy was in the wildest impulses of the imagination.

'His spirit, though mighty and unbounded, from his early habits and education naturally tended to repose; he thought with delight on the sun rising among the Alpine snows, or gilding the peaks of the rugged hills with its evening rays. But within him he felt a fire burning for ever, and which the snows of his native mountains could not quench. He feared that he was alone in the world, and that no being, kindred to his own, had been created; but in his soul there was an image of angelic perfection, which he believed existed not on earth, but without which he knew he could not be happy. Despairing to find it in populous cities, he retired to his paternal domain. On again entering upon the scenes of his infancy, many new and singular feelings were experienced—he is enchanted with the surpassing beauty of the scenery, and wonders that he should have rambled so long and so far from it. The noise and the bustle of the world were immediately forgotten on contemplating

'The silence that is in the starry sky,
'The sleep that is among the lonely hills.'

A light, as it were, broke around him, and exhibited a strange and momentary gleam of joy and of misery mingled together. He entered the dwelling of his infancy with delight, and met his brother with emotion. But his dark and troubled eye betokened a fearful change, when he beheld the other playmate of his infancy. Though beautiful as the imagination could conceive, she appeared otherwise than he expected. Her form and face were associated with some of his wildest reveries,—his feelings of affection were united with many undefinable sensations,—he felt as if she was not the wife of his brother, although he knew her to be so, and his soul sickened at the thought.

'He passed the night in a feverish state of joy and horror. From the window of a lonely tower, he beheld the moon shining amid the bright blue of an Alpine sky, and diffusing a calm and beautiful light on the silvery snow. The eagle owl uttered her long and plaintive note from the castellated summits which overhung the valley, and the feet of the wild chamois were heard rebounding from the neighbouring rocks; these accorded with the gentler feelings of his mind, but the strong spirit which so frequently overcame him, listened with intense delight to the dreadful roar of an immense torrent, which was precipitated from the summit of an adjoining cliff, among broken rocks and pines, overturned and uprooted, or to the still mightier voice of the avalanche, suddenly descending with the accumulated snows of a hundred years.

'In the morning he met the object of his unhappy passion. Her eyes were dim with tears, and a cloud of sorrow had darkened the light of her lovely countenance.

'For some time there was a mutual constraint in their manner, which both were afraid to acknowledge, and neither was able to dispel. Even the uncontrollable spirit of the wanderer was oppressed and overcome, and he wished he had never returned to the dwelling of his ancestors. The lady is equally aware of the awful peril of their situation, and without the knowledge of her husband, she prepared to depart from the castle, and take the veil in a convent situated in a neighbouring valley.

‘ With this resolution she departed on the following morning; but in crossing an Alpine pass, which conducted by a nearer route to the adjoining valley, she was enveloped in mists and vapour, and lost all knowledge of the surrounding country. The clouds closed in around her, and a tremendous thunder storm took place in the valley beneath. She wandered about for some time, in hopes of gaining a glimpse through the clouds of some accustomed object to direct her steps, till exhausted by fatigue and fear, she reclined upon a dark rock, in the crevices of which, though it was now the heat of summer, there were many patches of snow. There she sat, in a state of feverish delirium. till a gentle air dispelled the dense vapour from before her feet, and discovered an enormous chasm, down which she must have fallen, if she had taken another step. While breathing a silent prayer to Heaven for this providential escape, strange sounds were heard, as of some disembodied voice floating among the clouds. Suddenly she perceived, within a few paces, the figure of the wanderer tossing his arms in the air, his eye inflamed, and his general aspect wild and distracted—he then appeared meditating a deed of sin,—she rushed towards him, and, clasping him in her arms, dragged him backwards, just as he was about to precipitate himself into the gulf below.

‘ Overcome by bodily fatigue, and agitation of mind, they remained for some time in a state of insensibility. The brother first revived from his stupor; and finding her whose image was pictured in his soul lying by his side, with her arms resting upon his shoulder, he believed for a moment that he must have executed the dreadful deed he had meditated, and had waked in heaven. The gentle form of the lady is again reanimated, and slowly she opened her beautiful eyes. She questioned him regarding the purpose of his visit to that desolate spot—a full explanation took place of their mutual sensations, and they confessed the passion which consumed them.

‘ The sun was now high in heaven—the clouds of the morning had ascended to the loftiest Alps—and the mists, “into their airy elements resolved, were gone.” As the god of day advanced, dark vallies were suddenly illuminated, and lovely lakes brightened like mirrors among the hills—their waters sparkling with the fresh breeze of the morning. The most beautiful clouds were sailing in the air—some breaking on the mountain tops, and others resting on the sombre pines, or slumbering on the surface of the unilluminated vallies. The shrill whistle of the marmot was no longer heard, and the chamois had bounded to its inaccessible retreat. The vast range of the neighbouring Alps was next distinctly visible, and presented, to the eyes of the beholder, “glory beyond all glory ever seen.”

‘ In the meantime a change had taken place in the feelings of the mountain pair, which was powerfully strengthened by the face of nature. The glorious hues of earth and sky seemed indeed to sanction and rejoice in their mutual happiness. The darker spirit of the brother had now fearfully overcome him. The dreaming predictions of his most imaginative years appeared realized in their fullest extent, and the voice of prudence and of nature was inaudible amidst the intoxication of his joy. The object of his affection rested in his arms in a state of listless happiness, listening with enchanted ear to his wild and impassioned eloquence, and careless of all other sight or sound.

'She too had renounced her morning vows, and the convent was unthought of, and forgotten. Crossing the mountains by wild and unfrequented paths, they took up their abode in a deserted cottage, formerly frequented by goatherds and the hunters of the roe. On looking down, for the last time, from the mountain top, on that delightful valley, in which she had so long lived in innocence and peace, the lady thought of her departed mother, and her heart would have died within her, but the wild glee of the brother again rendered her insensible to all other sensations, and she yielded to the sway of her fatal passion.

'There they lived, secluded from the world, and supported, even through evil, by the intensity of their passion for each other. The turbulent spirit of the brother was at rest—he had found a being endowed with virtues like his own, and, as he thought, destitute of all his vices. The day dreams of his fancy had been realized, and all that he had imagined of beauty, or affection, was embodied in that form which he could call his own.

'On the morning of her departure the dreadful truth burst upon the mind of her wretched husband. From the first arrival of the dark-eyed stranger, a gloomy vision of future sorrow had haunted him by day and night. Despair and misery now made him their victim, and that awful malady which he inherited from his ancestors was the immediate consequence. He was seen, for the last time, among some stupendous cliffs which overhung the river, and his hat and cloak were found by the chamois hunters at the foot of an ancient pine.

'Soon too was the guilty joy of the survivors to terminate. The gentle lady, even in felicity, felt a load upon her heart. Her spirit had burned too ardently, and she knew it must, ere long, be extinguished. Day after day the lily of her cheek encroached upon the rose, till at last she assumed a monumental paleness, unrelieved, save by a transient and hectic glow. Her angelic form wasted away, and soon the flower of the valley was no more.

'The soul of the brother was dark, dreadfully dark, but his body wasted not, and his spirit caroused with more fearful strength. "The sounding cataract haunted him like a passion." He was again alone in the world, and his mind endowed with more dreadful energies. His wild eye sparkled with unnatural light, and his raven hair hung heavy on his burning temples. He wandered among the forests and the mountains, and rarely entered his once beloved dwelling, from the windows of which he had so often beheld the sun sinking in a sea of crimson glory.

'He was found dead in that same pass in which he had met his sister among the mountains; his body bore no marks of external violence, but his countenance was convulsed by bitter insanity.'

P. F.

ART. VIII.—*Surya Siddhanta.*

MOST of our readers are acquainted with the controversy which has taken place among some modern Astronomers of the first reputation; M. Gentil, M. Le Place, Dr. Marsden, Mr. Bentley, &c. as to the antiquity of the Indian astronomical calculations. The gentlemen who advocate the high antiquity of the Indian tables, refer them to a Hindo period called the *Katy Tong* 3102 years before the christian æra.

Four sets of Hindoo astronomical tables have been at different times brought or transmitted to Europe, by travellers who had no connection or communication with each other. 1. By father Du-champ, transmitted by M. de la Loubere, from Siam in 1687. 2. The tables from Parampour, by father Patrouillet, also transmitted by M. de la Loubere. 3. The Tirvalore tables brought home by M. Gentil. 4. Another set brought home by La Loubere. These tables assign values to seven different astronomical elements, which do not belong to them at the present day, but which the theory of gravity proves to have belonged to them at the æra of the Kali Youg! viz.

1. The procession of the equinoxes.
2. The acceleration of the moon's motion.
3. The length of the solar year.
4. The equation of the sun's centre.
5. The place of Jupiter's aphelion.
6. The equation of Saturn's centre.
7. The inequalities of motion of Jupiter and Saturn.

Dr. Marsden and Mr. Bentley suppose these calculations to have been made backward, at the period when the Soorya siddy antes (or Soorya viddantam, or Surya siddhanta as it is spelt above) was compiled; which is the great source of the present astronomical knowledge of the modern Brahmins, who are ignorant however of the principles on which the Surya siddhanta was calculated. But the supposition that this book contains astronomical facts calculated backwards, is inconsistent with the knowledge of astronomy prevalent in Europe at the date assigned to it. In Scotland, Dr. Playfair's defence of the antiquity of the Hindoo astronomy, is generally considered as unshaken. At any rate, the first translated specimen of the Surya Siddhanta, cannot but be welcomed as a curiosity of Hindoo literature, of no mean character: we give therefore the following extract from the Asiatic Register of May, 1817.

PART OF THE FIRST CHAPTER OF THE SURYA SIDDHANTA.

[The Surya Siddhanta our readers will recollect is the celebrated work on Astronomy, which by the plausible assumption of an immensely remote antiquity, has occasioned much curiosity, investigation, and controversy. See Asiatic researches, vols. ii. vi. and viii. We are enabled through the kindness of one of the very limited number capable of producing it, to present a version from the original Sanskrita, which is asserted to be the work of Varaha Mihira.]

BOOK FIRST.

Reverence to Ganesa! Om! Om!

Reverence to *Brahma*, the inconceivable, imperceptible form; without quality, the soul of quality; whose image comprehends the whole universe.

In the *Krita-Yooga*,* a little remaining, a great *Aura†* by name

* First age.

† An evil spirit.

Maya,* desirous of learning in full the most sublime mystery, the highest degree of knowledge, and foremost branch of science, the cause of the motion of the heavenly bodies, inflicted upon himself very severe acts of penance, in worshipping the sun. The prolific God, gratified by those acts of penance, was pleased with him, and of himself bestowed upon the votary *Maya*, the history of the planets. The glorious sun said: "Invoked with acts of penance, I know thy wish; and I will give thee that knowledge which has time for its foundation, the great history of the planets. No one being able to bear my glare, I have not an instant to speak. This man, a portion of myself, shall repeat it to thee, without remainder."

The God having said this, and fully instructed the portion of himself, disappeared. That man spoke thus unto *Maya*, as he stood with joined hands bowing:—"Hear with an attentive mind that supreme knowledge which heretofore the sun himself, in each of the Yugas, revealed unto the Maharshis.† This, verily, is that first Sastra the author of light formerly pronounced."

"In this work the division of time is by the revolution of Yugas only. There is a Time the destroyer of all things.‡ There is another Time for the purpose of calculation. That species of time is two fold, from its gross and subtle natures, called *Murta* and *Amurta*. The *Murta* is distinguished by the terms *Prana*,|| &c. The *Amurta* by the term —§ Six *Pranas* make one *Vinari*: sixty *Vinaris* one *Nari*; sixty *Naris* one day and night of the stars, and of such days and nights, thirty constitute one month; by sun-risings called *Savana*, by *Tithis*, or Lunar days, Lunar; by the *Sangkranti* Solar. Of twelve months is formed one year: it is called a celestial day. The *Suras* and the *Asuras* have their respective day and night, the reverse of each other. Of such days three hundred and sixty make a celestial year; and also a year of the *Asuras*. Of those years twelve thousand constitute the period of the four Yugas. The sum of the four Yugas, including their *Sandhis*¶ and *Sandhyangas*, is 4,320,000 solar years.

The duration of the *Krita*, &c. Yugas, is in proportion to the number of *Dharma's* feet remaining. The four Yugas, in due order, consist of four, three, two, and one-tenth of the sum of the whole.

The sixth part of the *Krita*, &c. Yuga, in due order, is its proper *Sandhi*. Seventy-one of the Yugas, &c. is here called the period of a *Manu*. At the end of it there is a *Sandhi* of the number of years constituting the *Krita Yuga*, viz. one million seven hundred and twenty-eight thousand years, called *Jalotbhava*.** Of the above *Manus* there are fourteen in a *Kalpa*, including *Sandhis*. At the beginning of a *Kalpa*, there is a *Sandhi* of fifteen times the measure of the *Krita Yuga*. Thus a *Kalpa*, which brings about the confusion of all things, is formed of a

* *Maya* is frequently mentioned as an artist skilled in supernatural works; in a note there is this addition; "at a place in *Salmali Dwipa* situated four hundred and twenty *Yojanas* to the east part from *Lanka*, *Maya*, &c."

† Literally great saints.

‡ Meaning time personified in *Siva* or fate.

|| Breathings.

§ The term is not legible in the original.

¶ The literal meaning of *Sandhya* or *Sandhi* is junction or union; and of *Sandhyanga*—portion of *Sandhi*.

** Rising of the waters.

thousand Yugas. The day of *Brahma* is so called. His night is of the same duration. His utmost age, according to that reckoning of day and night, is one hundred. One half of his age is gone; with the other half commenced this Kalpa; and of this Kalpa have passed six Manus Sandhis included; and of *Vivaswata Manu*, have passed three times nine Yugas; and of this the 28th Yuga, this, the Krita, is passed. In the Yuga are one million seven hundred and twenty-eight thousand years. from this,* for the purpose of calculating time, one may collect the numbers into one sum. The sum of four hundred and seventy-four divine years multiplied by one hundred, passed while *Brahma* was creating the planets, the stars, the *Dewas* and *Daityas*, the moving and the motionless things of this world.

The planets move constantly westward with the stars, with very great speed; and the victorious remain alike even in their respective paths. There is an east movement, hence they have a progress daily by or through the‡ zodiac. Being free from the influence of the Parinaha,‡ from that power they devour the stars. They move quick, too, with a little time, and with a great deal their motion is small. The stars are also said to be nourished by their revolution.

60" Vikalas	make 1 Kala, or minute.
60' Kalas	1° Bhaga, or degree.
30° Bhagas	1 Rasi, or sign.
12 Rasi	1 Bhagana, or zodiac.

The numbers of the revolutions§ of the Sun, Mercury and Venus; of Mars, Saturn, and Jupiter, Sighra|| moving east, in a Yuga:—

Of the Sun,	4,320,000
Moon,	57,753,336
Mars,	2,296,832
Mercury,	17,937,060
Jupiter,	364,220
Venus,	7,022,376
Saturn,	146,568

The number of revolutions of the Moon's Uchch'a (Apogee)¶ in a Yuga is 488,203

Vamam-pata** 232,238

Of terrestrial Savana days, from sun-rise to sun-rise, in a Yuga, the number is 1,577,917,828

Of sidereal days, 1,582,237,828

Of Lunar days, 1,603,000,080

Of Adhima-sakas, 1,593,336

Of Tithikshayas, 25,082,252

Of solar months, 51,840,000

The number of star-risings reduced by the number of the sun's Bhaganas (or revolutions through the zodiac) is the number of terrestrial‡ days.

* After this.

† Literally—star-numbers, by or through the stars of the zodiac.

‡ This seems to mean a grand sphere containing all the fixed stars by whose motion they move.

§ Bhaganas.

|| Sighra means quick.

¶ Oochihe means high Apogee.

** Means left or back-fall.—Node.

The lunar months are the difference between Bhaganas (revolutions through the zodiac) of the sun and moon.*

The solar months being deducted the remainder will be the number of Adhimasakas.†

Having deducted the Savana days from the lunar days, the remainder will be the Tithikshayas.‡

By multiplying these numbers of Adhimasas, Unaratris sidereal, lunar, and Savana days in a Yuga, by one thousand, is found their respective numbers in a Kalpa.

The number of the sun's manda|| (slow) revolutions, moving east in a Kalpa is

Of Mars's	387
Of Mercury's	204
Of Jupiter's	368
Of Venus's	900
Of Saturn's	535
Of their Patas to the left§ as follows:—	39

Of their Patas to the left§ as follows:—

Of Mars's	214
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ART. IX.—Mr. Grenfell's Speech.

We introduce to our readers, the very important Speech of Mr. Grenfell on the transactions which have taken place between the government of Great Britain and the Bank of that country. Wherein it is clearly shown, that what will always take place in the negotiations between two parties on money matters, wherein the one is fully master of his business, and the other not, has taken place on the present occasion. It is a lesson of which our own Government may profit if it pleases: *felix quem faciunt aliena pericula, cautum.*

But the great point of this able exposition, is the proposition of Mr. Grenfell, that Government has its own remedy in its own hands: that it may if it pleases *become the sole issuer of paper money.*

Formerly, the medium of intercourse—the standard resorted to to settle the negotiations of barter and exchange, was the coined bullion—the gold and silver money of the Country, coined under the authority and inspection of the Government of the Country. Every nation thought it expedient to reserve to itself the privilege of its own coinage. It was on this principle that when Mr. Jefferson was secretary of state, he steadily and unhesitatingly refused the offers of Boulton and Watt, to coin or even to erect here their coining-apparatus, although they had struck so many coins for the East India company—and for the Monnerons and other bankers of Paris. Coins that did honour to the taste and skill of the time when they were issued.

* 57,708,336—4,320,000—53,433,336. 53,433,336—51,840,000—1,593,336.

† 1,603,000,080—1,577,917,628—25,082,252.

‡ Seems to be the same as Tithikshaya.

|| Manda means slow—the Apogee seems to be implied!

§ Or back.

This reservation on the part of every Government, is made for the purpose of preserving inviolate the great medium of commerce and exchange. It is because coined bullion actually was, the real medium of commerce and exchange. With the same views, justified by the precedent of every civilized nation in Europe, the federal Government of America received from the people the exclusive right of superintending and regulating the coinage of the country, and of preserving the exclusive control over the mint—the mint of the United States.

The ground of this was, that the coin of the country, was every where the medium of the commerce of the country. The *reason* of the privilege therefore, points to this—that the Government of every country ought to have the exclusive control over the common medium of commerce, whatever that medium may be. If circumstances for instance, had rendered it convenient to substitute platinum for gold, or nickel for silver, the reason of the privilege would have extended to platinum and nickel, for the same cause that it extended before to gold and to silver.

In England, since the stoppage of specie payments, the medium of commerce is no longer gold and silver, but bank notes. The Government of England therefore as it appears from this speech of Mr. Grenfell, deem their privilege to extend to bank notes, for the same reason that it heretofore, and still does extend to gold and silver.

We have imitated the financial conduct, publicly and privately of Great Britain to a certain degree. We have substituted as they have done, paper money for gold and silver coin. We pay in that, all private, all public debts. Paper money is now the medium of commerce: no one pretends that there is actually in the country, coin to redeem the paper money issued. The reason of the thing, extends therefore to paper money: and why should not we carry our imitations of Great Britain to the extent they arrogate? this is an important subject, which shall be taken up again. *Ed.*

The speech of Pascoe Greenfell, Esq. in the House of Commons on Tuesday, the 13th. of February 1816, on certain transactions subsisting betwixt the Public and the Bank of England. With an Appendix. London, Murray, 8vo, 1816.

[From the Monthly Magazine.]

OF late years the Parliament of Britain has signalized itself by collecting and disseminating information on several important points of national economy. We imagine it would be hard for the most determined reformer to shew how, by mere extension of the elective franchise, or any enlarged constitution of the legislative body, an House of Commons could be found more worthy, in this respect, of the public confidence. At a time when party violence has graduated through various heights, until at last it seems to have reached its acme, it is well to resort to any thing which can excite, on fair grounds, a favourable view of the intelligence and integrity of the assembly which makes laws for us. On its reputation for wisdom or folly, the intellectual character, as well as the

political spirit of the nation, must in some degree depend. So long as it contains men with the literature and habits of gentlemen, what is agreed on within its walls must have a strong sympathy with what is best in the public: and until the whole of that public, or at least that part of it whose leisure and education fits it for making a ready and decisive opinion on public acts and relations, shall become all at once, and permanently, wiser or better, it is evident that what could be done by a reformed House of Commons must depend more on the spirit, intelligence, and personal independence of the unministerial part of its members, than on any new mechanism of the whole body. The character, not less almost than the existence, of the country, is in the hands of its responsible ministers. The country is not, nor cannot be aware, until from the nature of the thing it is perhaps too late, of how much both are on occasions committed; and it would be unreasonable to expect that the ministers themselves should be always aware of the true complexion or consequences of their own measures. From occupation of mind, from a commendable contempt of small difficulties, and from that inevitable trust of self which pervades human nature, it is clear that, in giving their minds to the rapid succession of affairs in a great nation like this, ministers must be far advanced in some measure resulting from a preceding one, before even the first outward results of that of which it is a consequence can be made apparent. This is almost always true with respect to great projects of state. It is just one of those fatalities in human affairs, which by demanding an union of requisites the most opposite, operate as a constant check to any progress which tends beyond a certain point. It requires at once the longest reach of generalization, and the most untired capacity for particulars. There is nothing for all this but a phalanx in our legislative assembly, composed either of men who have known, or may wish to share, the duties of office themselves, and are not only disposed, but able, to criticise acutely the proceedings of its holders for the time being,—or of those who, without any turn for office, or experience of its duties, have yet sagacity and penetration to see when the public interests are attended to, and when they may be neglected, and with this, firmness to pursue their investigations, and good sense and management enough to make them understood and appreciated. It is creditable to any country to possess such men; and we are of opinion, that it is from their influence that our House of Commons has derived to its proceedings a character of directness and sincerity which appears so greatly wanting in newly-formed legislatures elsewhere. While that House has men who devote their days and nights, their ease and their credit, their fortune and pleasures, to the public interest, it can never become contemptible from the indiscretion of injudicious assailants or weak defenders. Among those men, the speaker now before us merits, in our humble opinion, a conspicuous place.

A few circumstances in the history of the Bank of England, previous to Mr Grenfell's investigations, seem needful for elucidating their scope and object. So long as the Bank continued responsible

for its issues, by being liable to pay in specie, like any private bank, it seems to have been sufficiently careful and circumspect in its bargains with the public; and its advances to Government and to the merchants seem to have been influenced by each other. The discounts were subject then, as now, to great fluctuation. Mr. Bosanquet stated to the Lords' Committee, that he had seen them decrease in amount from a whole to a third. So cautious were the directors in their transactions with Government, as, in 1783, to refuse making the usual advances on the loan.* In 1782, the highest amount of their notes in circulation was 9,100,000*l.*; in 1783, 7,300,000*l.*; and in the year following, 6,700,000*l.* From 1787 to 1793, the amounts were eight, nine, ten, and eleven millions; in 1794, a little less than eleven millions; in 1795, 13,500,000*l.*; in 1796, a little more than eleven millions. From 1777 to 1794, the advances made by the Bank on land, malt, and other Government securities, had fluctuated from seven to eight and nine millions, never exceeding 9,900,000*l.* In 1795, they stood at eleven millions. At the end of that year, it was understood that Mr. Pitt contemplated a loan of 3,000,000*l.* to the Emperor of Austria. At this momentous period, however, the country began to feel vitally the effects of its hitherto unparalleled exertions. Taxation had cut deeply into a national capital, which had not been reinforced by any temporary expedients, or excited by artificial stimuli. The pressure of commercial distress, which is always more or less attendant on a state of war, had then been considerable. Demands for accommodation at the Bank had been great. That corporation, trading on ascertained resources, had become impressed with the necessity of limiting its issues of notes, and of caution in giving discounts. The doubtful success of our continental alliances against France, and the spirit of change which seemed brooding over the mighty waters that bounded the political horizon at home, had banished mercantile confidence. Hoards of gold where everywhere made by the timid and avaricious; and men's fears, operating on their interests, made those with small possessions desirous of withdrawing their floating paper securities for something more tangible, in the event of foreign invasion or domestic tumult. In this situation of things, so early as 3d December 1795, the Court of Directors thus expressed their opinion to Mr. Pitt: "Should such a loan take place, they are but too well grounded in declaring (from the actual effects of the Emperor's last loan, and the continued drains of specie and bullion they still experience), that they have the most cogent reasons to apprehend very momentous and alarming consequences." This opinion was enforced and repeated in two deliberately formal opinions, delivered to the Chancellor of the Exchequer by the Court, on 14th January and 11th February 1796. Previous to these dates, the demand for gold from abroad was very great. The market price of that article was four guineas

* Report of the lords' committee of secrecy on the causes which produced the order of council, 26th Feb. 1797, p. 23.

an ounce, while our coin cost only 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.*; the consequence of which was, that foreign shipmasters had orders to take back their returns in specie or bullion, and large quantities of English guineas were melted at Hamburgh and other ports abroad.* At the early part of that year, so large a loan as six millions for Germany, and eighteen for Britain, was expected, and threw the Bank Directors into the greatest consternation. They had frequent communications with Mr. Pitt on such small advances as he could persuade them to give. At an interview, 23d October 1795, the Governor of the Bank told him, that another loan of magnitude "would go nigh to ruin the country!" But the most impressive remonstrance made to the Premier from the Directors, was one dated 28th July 1796, on which day a series of resolutions were passed in Court, on an advance of 800,000*l.*, of which this is the conclusion: "They likewise consent to this measure, in a firm reliance that the repeated promises so frequently made to them, that the advances on the Treasury bills should be completely done away, may be actually fulfilled at the next meeting of Parliament, and the necessary arrangements taken to prevent the same from ever happening again; *as they conceive it to be an unconstitutional mode of raising money*, what they are not warranted by their charter to consent to, and an advance always extremely inconvenient to themselves." Towards the close of 1796, and the beginning of 1797, the fears of the Bank increased, and Mr. Pitt's demands became more urgent. On 25th February, the bank notes in circulation were 8,640,250*l.*; and next day an order in council was issued, suspending payments in specie at the Bank, which was soon after followed by an act of the Legislature, "restraining the Bank of England from paying its obligations in cash." On 1st May 1797, the first issue of one and two pound notes was made; and at that date the amount of notes in circulation was 13,055,800*l.*—a sudden bound of four or five millions from that point which the Directors found safe while they were called on for specie. On 27th December 1796, Mr. Pitt stated the probable expenditure of the ensuing year at 27,647,000*l.*, and the new taxes to defray the interest of a loan of 18,000,000*l.*, to make up that expenditure, at 2,132,000*l.* In 1796, we find the highest price of bank stock to have been, on 23d January, 177½, and the lowest, on 24th November, 144. The highest amount of bank notes in circulation was 11,700,000*l.* In January 1797, it was only 10,500,000*l.*; and Mr. Grenfell states the value of the capital stock, "on an average of the whole year, only 125 per cent." The total of the funded debt, in 1796, was 327,071,371*l.*

The suspension of cash payments we consider to have been at that period the most important event that had occurred, from the declaration of independence by the British American colonies, if

* For the principles connected with these facts, as they bear on the question of the suspension of cash payments at the bank, and its effects on currency and prices, see sect. 1. of Mr. M'Culloch's *essay on the reduction of the interest of the national debt*.

we except the revolution in France itself. All parties are now agreed on the importance of this suspension, though two very distinct opinions have been maintained about its propriety. We humbly imagine, that it was fraught with political and moral consequences of the most serious import to this country, and, indirectly to the civilized world. These, however, are yet only so far advanced in their progress; and it would ill become passing speculators like us to attempt to describe its future direction. The immediate fact with regard to the purpose intended by this measure is, that it was completely successful. Indeed, the untouched resources of this country were, from many causes, at that time in a state of unparalleled vigour. The more they were probed, it was found, to use an expression of Mr Burke's, that "we were full, even to plethora." Taxes to an amount hitherto unknown in the history of the world were collected with certainty, and with such ease that their first pressure only was felt. All the powers of Europe who joined in the coalition against France were subsidized by us, some years nearly to the amount of their own revenues. The great majority of the land proprietors, almost all the merchants and manufacturers, and certainly much of the rest of the population, fully concurred in these measures. If ever minister could say, that in all he proposed the nation went with him, that minister was Mr Pitt. His schemes of war and expedients of finance were received with a fervour of approbation which seemed to think no advance too great for the objects in view, and only to regret that means alone, however costly, could not accomplish them. All of our national spirit that was sentiment, or emotion, or propensity, tended to utter hatred of France, and cordial trust of the high-minded man who had gained the ascendant in our councils. It is with the consequences of these measures to the Bank of England that we have now to do: and they were as follow.

The Bank of England was, by public contract, the agent for managing our debt, and, by parliamentary appointment, the place of deposit for all balances of public money from departments of revenue or accountantship. In the first of these characters, its emoluments had increased with the increasing burdens of the country until for that service alone nearly 300,000*l.* per annum was received; and in the second, the Bank has now had, for eleven years, the custody of balances of money *permanently*, averaging, on the whole, 11,500,000*l.* On this large sum the Government received no interest. It attracted the attention of the committee on public expenditure, in 1807. That committee, in its report, commented with equal good sense and ability on the advantages which the Bank must derive from such a large deposit of money.* The bank notes in circulation had then increased to 16,621,390*l.*; and the deposits, which in 1797 had been only 5,130,140*l.* inclusive of private accounts, were, on the Government account alone, betwixt eleven

* See Report, &c. ordered by the House of Commons to be printed. 10th. August 1807, pp. 75, 76, 77, 78, and 79.

and twelve millions. Bank stock, which had sold in 1800 from 156 to 172 per cent., then sold at 230—"strong circumstances," as the committee observes, "in confirmation of the large increase of profits." It appears, from the evidence of Mr Samuel Thornton before the committee, that in 1800, when he, as Governor transacted with Mr Pitt a renewal of the Bank's charter for twenty-one years, it had not escaped his eagle eye, to urge, on the part of the public, a right to participate in the profits of the Bank arising, among other things, from money lodged there to pay the growing dividends, and the quarterly issues for redemption of the national debt, which "Mr Pitt estimated, might, during the progress of the charter, accumulate to 4,000,000 a-quarter."* The final bargain made for the public was,—for the renewal, and on account of the advantages from public money enjoyed by the Bank,—a loan of three millions, without interest, for six years, "producing," as Mr Thornton says, "a profit of 900,000/; but, at the then price of annuities, it was worth only 750,000/ reckoning 5/ per cent. interest of money." The same gentleman states the average balance from money lodged for payment of growing dividends, at "two millions and an half," and "on the public accounts at that time, of trifling amount." Mr Grenfell, however, has found out, "from statements *now* made by the Bank," and avers it in his speech, that the money for growing dividends exceeded 3,600,000/ and that the *trifling* deposits were 1,947,000/. If Mr. Pitt had possessed, in 1800, the knowledge which Mr Grenfell now possesses, we should have had a bargain more advantageous to the public. The plain truth, with respect to what was really done, is, that the Bank lent with an air of sacrifice and self-denial, as the equivalent in a bargain most advantageous to them, three millions of money to that public, of whose treasure they were then in permanent possession of sums amounting to more than six millions! In 1806 this loan became payable. The administration at that time did not find it convenient to make the payment, but succeeded in "prolonging the period of this loan for the then existing war," at 3 per cent. i. e. paying "90,000/ per annum for the use of it."† "Why sir," says Mr Grenfell, addressing the Speaker with most excusable animation, "at the very moment, in 1806, when the Bank required, and the public most improvidently agreed to pay, 90,000/ for the use of three millions of money, the Bank held, and were in possession of, a treasure belonging to the public amounting to a sum little short of twelve millions, wholly unproductive to the public, but productive of advantage to the Bank." In the year 1814, it is most proper to add here this loan was repaid, and the interest on it, amounting, for eight years and eight months, to 780,000/!

As soon as the report of the committee on public expenditure made its appearance, Mr Perceval, who was by that time Chancellor of the Exchequer, came forward to claim for the public a participation in the profits derivable from the deposits, and a reduction

* Vide Report, as above, p. 103.

† Mr Grenfell's Speech, p. 21.

in the charge for managing the national debt. The Bank agreed to give another loan of three millions without interest; to allow the withdrawing of half a million of the unclaimed dividends then lying in their hands; and "a reduction equal to about one fourth in the then existing charges for the management of the debt." The saving by this arrangement was 242,000*l.* per annum. In 1814 this loan became due. The present Chancellor of the Exchequer prevailed easily on the Bank to allow the prolongation of it to 5th April in this year, on the ground that the public balances had remained "*undiminished*."

We may now venture to state the present profits of the Bank, arising out of its contracts or transactions with the public.

Interest at 5 per cent. on 11,500,000 of public balances held by the Bank since 1806, 575,000*l.* From which deduct for a loan of three millions to the public without interest, saving 5 per cent., which is 150,000*l.* another of six millions, at 4 per cent. saving 1 per cent. 60,000*l.*; another of three millions, at 3 per cent. saving 2 per cent. 60,000*l.*; and half a million taken from the unclaimed dividends, saving 5 per cent. 25,000*l.* in all 295,000*l.*—leaving to the Bank of England, merely for the safe custody of the public money, a clear profit of 280,000*l.* a-year! The rest of their allowances stand thus: Commission for making transfers and paying dividends on the national debt, 275,000*l.* Commission on loans and lotteries, 30,000*l.* (Both these stated as in 1815.) Annual allowance, since the erection of the Bank, for *house expenses*, 4000*l.* Annual allowance on four millions of the public debt bought by the Bank in 1722 from the South Sea Company, 1898*l.* If to this we add, for sixteen millions of increase in the circulation of Bank of England paper, since 26th February 1797, an annual profit of 5 per cent. which is 800,000*l.* the gross returns to our national Bank, from its transactions with the state, will be 1,390,898*l.* yearly!*

The effects of this profitable arrangement, which has operated so visibly on that thriving establishment, will be seen to be full conviction to our readers, when we add a statement of the profits realized by Bank proprietors during the last twenty years, reckoning from 1797; from which period, by the increased amount in the public expenditure producing such deposits of money, and the increase of the national debt, and the increased issue of notes, unchecked, until within the last three years, by any motive of prudence,—over and above the old ordinary dividend of 7 per cent., there has accrued to that description of persons: In bonuses, and increase of dividends, 64 per cent. 7,451,136*l.*† New bank stock, 2,910,600*l.*

* It is only fair to state here a saving of 233,720*l.* per annum, from 11,686,000*l.* advanced to the public from the Bank since 1746, at three per cent. interest, being the consideration paid on every renewal of their charter for their exclusive privileges.

† Bonuses distributed among the proprietors betwixt June 1799 and October 1806, 32 1-2 per cent. Permanent increase of dividend, at 3 per cent. per annum commencing in April 1807, is to April 1817, 10 1-2 years' dividends, or 31 1-2 per cent. Together, 64 per cent.

divided amongst the proprietors in May 1816, worth 250 per cent. equivalent in money to 7,276,500*l.* Increased value of the capital of 11, 642,000*l.* upon an average of 1797 only 125 per cent. but which is now taken at 250, being an increase in the market value of this property of 125 per cent. equivalent to 14, 553,000*l.* Thus the total profit, *in addition* to the annual dividends of 7 per cent. which had never been exceeded during the first hundred years of the Bank's existence, has been, in *twenty years*, on a capital of 11, 642,400*l.* the incredible sum of 29,280,636*l.*

We have now put our readers in possession of some striking facts in the history of this celebrated establishment, for almost all of which, at least for those which are most important, we are indebted to the unwearied research and perseverance of the author of the Speech before us. That Speech, and the propositions to Parliament on which it is founded,* resolve themselves into three questions. Can the allowances made to the Bank be reduced in their amount with justice to the Bank and safety to the public? Can the nation derive farther advantage from the large deposits of money lodged at the Bank? These objects once found practicable and expedient, What would be the most effectual and dignified course to be adopted for securing them?

On each of these we shall offer such obvious and simple hints as the stinted limits of our publication will admit. 1st, As to what farther deduction may be made on the allowance for managing the debt, we quote, with deference and satisfaction, from a letter addressed to the Treasury, 18th January 1786, by the commissioners for auditing public accounts. "We take the liberty to suggest (what is indeed very obvious), that the commencement of every undertaking is usually the most expensive; and consequently, when the Bank had once provided additional clerks, and incurred such other new expenses as might be necessary, the same persons and accommodations (or nearly the same) would be sufficient to transact the payment of the dividends on several additional millions, without much increase of charges of management.

We believe that most other contractors have found, that a moderate sum gained on a large quantity of any commodity generally produces a greater profit than a higher price on a less quantity, therefore, if 360*l.* was a sufficient allowance when annuities on a capital of one million only were created, it should seem that the bank could well undertake the like service at a much lower rate: not only when the public necessities have unfortunately increased the capital of the national debt to the enormous load of two hundred millions,† but also when the consolidation of a variety of annuities must have lessened both the trouble and expense attending the management thereof." The bank has incurred, within the last twenty years, a very great expense for additional hands, and more accommodation to the public business; and no one can deny

* See No 390, Parl. Pro. Sess. 1815.

† That truly "enormous load" is now nearly 860 millions!

that it is executed unexceptionably well. But these views of the committee are still applicable as principles. The allowance of 4000*l.* for house expenses was strongly adverted to for discontinuance, in the end of 1807, by Mr. Perceval, in his correspondence with the bank at that time. The same reasons exist now; and indeed, the authority of that very acute and able man is sufficient to those who know, that if his leisure from the multifarious calls of state had permitted him to turn a full attention to the affairs of the bank, he would have insisted on a thorough sifting and revision of their bargains. The allowance for the debt purchased of the South Sea Company, is one which ought to cease instantly, on the plain ground, that all management on it has ceased since 1722. 2dly, The deposits of public money lying at the bank are just so many millions of capital taken from the productive labour and productive capital of the country, where they *might* at least be useful, and lodged with a great corporation whose trade is money, and to whom they must be of the highest value. It is to them so much added to their ordinary capital, without much of the risk or responsibility to which their floating obligations subject them. For every thousand of this money in their hands, they are enabled to discount so many more bills, or issue so many more notes. The public service ought instantly to be benefitted by them, if the usury laws are repealed, to an amount according to what may be the average rate of interest for money throughout the country. 3dly, Mr. Grenfell recommends that *parliament should interfere* to make a new arrangement for the public; assigning as a reason, that the influence "which, though all powerful, irresistible in Downing Street, would be impotent and unavailing within the walls of the House." "Is not," says he, with the same animation which we spoke of before,—“Is not your whole financial history, during the last twenty years, filled with proofs of this influence? It is then in this house, and through the medium of this house only, that the interests and rights of the public can be secured in all negotiations of this nature with the bank; and I repeat it, if the house of commons *will interfere*, my conviction is, that the bank *will not resist*. If, however, I should be disappointed in this expectation,—and if the bank, unmindful of what it owes to the public,—forgetting that it has duties to perform towards the public, as well as within the limited circle of its own proprietors,—I will go farther, and, as a proprietor of bank stock myself, add, that if the bank, taking a narrow, contracted, selfish, and therefore mistaken view of its own real *permanent* interests, should resist regulations founded in fairness, equity, and justice,—in such a state of things, sir, I say it must be a consolation to us to know, and I assert it confidently, that *we have* a remedy within our own reach.” p. 60. As to the profits accruing from the paper circulation of the bank, of which we hope the country will continue to enjoy the advantages, under due modifications,*

* We hope to be able to announce very soon, from the pen of one of the ablest economists of our time, an essay, showing that a large coinage of gold would be

Mr. Ricardo is of opinion, that paper money affords a seignorage equal to its exchangeable value; and he also believes that *the nation might gain two millions yearly, if it were the sole issuer of paper money.* He wisely adds, that this would only be safe under the guidance of "commissioners responsible to parliament only." Mr. Grenfell's recommendation of parliamentary interference is good. That is, indeed, the truly constitutional mode. Every exertion of the kind is so much gained towards ensuring a considerate use of the public treasure, and a strict control over it in future, as matter of duty and honest emulation, on the part of those who have been recognised, since the revolution, as its guardians.

We have now gone over the principal matters of these questions. For the rest we refer to Mr. Grenfell, who has invested the subject with attractions of manner to which we cannot aspire. To his interference in the business this country is indebted for a saving of 180,000*l.* yearly,—a thing of greater importance than those who are occupied with the taking out doubtful schemes of a more extended patriotism could be easily led to acknowledge. Nice calculations of political arithmetic, however, and even the most refined enquiries of political economy, come now, with direct force, to the ordinary business and interests of all those who have, in common parlance, a *stake in the country*; and we might even add, to those also who have nothing but life and liberty to care for, and whose interest in the cause of good government is the ultimate and the extreme.

We know, *from the very best authority*, that lord Grenville, much to the credit of his sense and candour, has recently taken blame to himself for not looking narrowly enough into the affairs of the bank in 1806-7, when he was at the head of the treasury, and Mr. Vansittart secretary under him. The truth is, we believe, that ministers only overlooked this subject during the occupation of mind so naturally produced by the vast concerns of the war. The author of these discussions, to whom all the merit is due, and who might be excused for any partialities to his own inquiries, or ardour in the pursuit of their objects, shows exemplary moderation. He has taken them up without violence or faction, but with the urbanity and decision of an English gentleman. He has not overestimated their importance; and his statements are remarkable for perspicuity and plainness, without the least shade of laboured comment or ostentatious deduction. He deals not in splendid generalizations, nor in well-turned invectives *ad captandum vulgus*. We entreat the early attention of our readers to the speech itself, and to the appendix, in which they will find a variety of essential

a fixation of capital, and therefore hurtful to the state. For the happiest idea that ever was conceived, of a currency liable to no variations except such as affect the standard itself, we refer to the novel, solid, and ingenious reasons urged in Mr. Ricardo's *proposals*. There also the reader will find the practical development of this fortunate conception made out with uncommon closeness, clearness, and simplicity.

statement and explanation, for which we could not possibly make room.

Mr. Grenfell was a member of the Bullion committee, and enjoyed the friendship of Mr. Horner. In a letter written lately to a correspondent in this place, he says, "the sanction of his great authority, and his unvaried countenance and approbation of my humble exertions in this cause, inspired me with a confidence as to the correctness of my own views, which has been most essential to me." We knew, ourselves, enough of that most excellent person, to perceive that this is a great deal for any man to say. The privileges and advantages which it implies can only be equalled by intercourse with one of the most original and inventive writers on political economy since the time of Adam Smith;* whose speculations on the great subjects of human interest with which that science is especially connected, have much of the strictness and severity of mathematical demonstration; and who bids fair to give to its most practical deductions more shape and certainty than they have received from any writer of his day.

ART. X.—*Curiosities of Literature*, vol. 3.—by Mr. D'Israeli.

THE PANTOMIMICAL CHARACTERS.

OF the *mimi* and the *pantomimi* of the Romans, the following notices enter into our present researches:

The *mimi* were an impudent race of buffoons, who excelled in mimicry, and, like our domestic fools, admitted into convivial parties, to entertain the guests; from them we derive the term, *mimetic art*. Their powers enabled them to perform a more extraordinary office, for they appear to have been introduced into funerals, to mimic the person, and even the language of the deceased. Suetonius describes an *archimimus* accompanying the funeral of Vespasian. This archmime performed his part admirably, not only representing the person, but imitating, according to custom, *ut est mos*, the manners and language of the living emperor. He contrived a happy stroke at the prevailing foible of Vespasian, when he inquired the cost of all this funeral pomp! 'Ten millions of sesterces!' On this he observed, that, if they would give him but a hundred thousand, they might throw his body into the Tiber.

The *pantomimi* were of a different class. They were tragic actors, usually mute; they combined with the arts of gesture, music and dances of the most impressive character. Their silent language has often drawn tears, by the pathetic emotions they excited: 'Their very nod speaks, their hands talk, and their fingers have a voice,' says one of their admirers. Seneca, the father, grave as was his profession, confessed his taste for pantomimes!

* Mr. Ricardo, who is the friend of Mr. Grenfell, seconded his resolutions proposed to the court of proprietors at the bank, 23d May 1816, and speaks with respect of his exertions for the public. See *proposals for an economical and secure currency*, p. 42.

had become a passion; and by the decree of the senate that 'the Roman knights should not attend the pantomimic players in the streets,' it is evident that the performers were greatly honoured. Lucian has composed a curious treatise on pantomimes.

These pantomimics seem to have been held in great honour; many were children of the graces and the virtues!—The tragic and the common masks were among the ornaments of the sepulchral monuments of an archmime and a pantomime. Montfaucon conjectures that they formed a select fraternity.

The parti-coloured hero, with every part of his dress, has been drawn out of the greatest wardrobe of antiquity; he was a Roman mimi: Harlequin is described with his shaven head, *rasis capitibus*; his sooty face, *fuligine faciem obducti*; his flat unshod feet, *planipedes*; and his patched coat of many colours; *mimi centunculo*. Even *Pullicinella*, whom we familiarly call Punch, may receive, like other personages of no greater importance, all his dignity from antiquity; one of his Roman ancestors having appeared to an antiquary's visionary eye in a bronze statue: more than one erudite dissertation authenticates the family likeness; the nose long, prominent, and hooked; the staring goggle eyes; the hump at his back and at his breast; in a word, all the character which so strongly marks the Punch-race, as distinctly as whole dynasties have been featured by the Austrian lip and the Bourbon nose.

The genealogy of the whole family is confirmed by the general term, which includes them all; for our *Zany*, in Italian *Zanni*, comes direct from *Sannio*, a buffoon; and a passage in Cicero, *de oratore*, paints harlequin and his brother-gesticulators after the life; the perpetual trembling motion of their limbs, their ludicrous and flexible gestures, and all the mimicry of their faces. '*Quid enim potest tam ridiculum quam Sannio esse? Qui ore, vultu, imitandis motibus, voce, denique corpore ridetur ipso.*' Lib. II. § 51. For what has more of the ludicrous than Sannio? who, with his mouth, his face, imitating every motion, with his voice, and, indeed, with all his body, provokes laughter.

The harlequin in the Italian theatre has passed through all the vicissitudes of fortune. At first he was a true representative of the ancient Mime, but during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries he degenerated into a booby and a gourmand, the perpetual butt for a sharp-witted fellow, his companion, called *Brighella*, the knife and the whetstone. Harlequin, under the reforming hand of Goldoni, became a child of nature, the delight of his country; and he has commemorated the historical character of the great Harlequin Sacchi.

AUDLEY THE USURER.

A person whose history will serve as a canvas to exhibit some scenes of the arts of the money-trader, was one AUDLEY, a lawyer, and a great practical philosopher, who concentrated his vigorous faculties in the science of the relative value of money. He flou-

nished through the reigns of James I, Charles I, and held a lucrative office in the 'court of wards,' till that singular court was abolished at the time of the restoration. In his own times he was called 'the great Audley,' an epithet so often abused, and here applied to the creation of enormous wealth. But there are minds of great capacity, concealed by the nature of their pursuits; and the wealth of Audley may be considered as the cloudy medium through which a bright genius shone, who, had it been thrown into a nobler sphere of action, the 'greatness' would have been less ambiguous.

This genius of thirty per cent. first had proved the decided vigour of his mind, by his enthusiastic devotion to his law-studies; deprived of his leisure for study through his busy day, he stole the hours from his late nights and his early mornings; and without the means to procure a law-library, he invented a method to possess one without the cost; as fast as he learned, he taught; and, by publishing some useful tracts on temporary occasions, he was enabled to purchase a library. He appears never to have read a book without its furnishing him with some new practical design, and he probably studied too much for his own particular advantage. Such devoted studies was the way to become a lord chancellor; but the science of the law was here subordinate to that of a money-trader.

When yet but a clerk to the clerk in the counter, frequent opportunities occurred, which Audley knew how to improve. He became a money-trader as he had become a law-writer, and the fears and follies of mankind were to furnish him with a trading capital. The fertility of his genius appeared in expedients and in quick contrivances. He was sure to be the friend of all men falling out. He took a deep concern in the affairs of his master's clients, and often much more than they were aware of. No man so ready at procuring bail or compounding debts. This was a considerable traffic then, as now. They hired themselves out for bail, swore what was required, and contrived to give false addresses. It seems they dressed themselves out for the occasion: a great seal-ring flamed on the finger, which, however, was pure copper, gilt, and often assumed the name of some person of good credit. Savings, and small presents for gratuitous opinions, often afterwards discovered to be very fallacious ones, enabled him to purchase annuities of easy landholders, with their treble amount secured on their estates. The improvident owners, or the careless heirs, were entangled in the usurer's nets; and after the receipt of a few years, the annuity, by some latent quibble, or some irregularity in the payments, usually ended in Audley's obtaining the treble forfeiture. He could at all times out-knave a knave. One of these incidents has been preserved. A draper, of no honest reputation, being arrested by a merchant for a debt of 200*l.*, Audley bought the debt at forty pounds, for which the draper immediately offered him fifty. But Audley would not consent,

unless the draper indulged a sudden whim of his own: *this* was a formal contract, that the draper should pay, within twenty years, upon twenty certain days, a penny doubled. A knave, in haste to sigh, is no calculator; and, as the contemporary dramatist describes one of the arts of those citizens, one part of whose business was

‘To swear and break: they all grow rich by breaking!’

the draper eagerly compounded. He afterwards ‘grew rich.’ Audley, silently watching his victim, within two years, claims his doubled pennies, every month during twenty months. The pennies had now grown up to pounds. The knave perceived the trick, and preferred paying the forfeiture of his bond for 500*l.* rather than to receive the visitation of all the little generation of compound interest in the last descendant of 2000*l.*, which would have closed with the draper’s shop. The inventive genius of Audley might have illustrated that popular tract of his own times, Peacham’s ‘Worth of a Penny:’ a gentleman, who, having scarcely one left, consoled himself by detailing the numerous comforts of life it might procure in the days of Charles II.

This philosophical usurer never pressed hard for his debts; like the fowler, he never shook his nets lest he might startle, satisfied to have them, without appearing to hold them. With great fondness he compared his ‘bonds to infants, which battle best by sleeping.’ To battle is to be nourished, a term still retained at the university of Oxford. His familiar companions were all subordinate actors in the great piece he was performing; he too had his part in the scene. When not taken by surprise, on his table usually lie opened a great Bible, with bishop Andrew’s folio sermons, which often gave him an opportunity of railing at the covetousness of the clergy! declaring their religion was ‘a mere preach,’ and that ‘the time would never be well till we had queen Elizabeth’s protestants again in fashion.’ He was aware of all the evils arising out of a population beyond the means of subsistence, and dreaded an inundation of men, spreading like the spawn of a cod. Hence he considered marriage with a modern political economist, as very dangerous; bitterly censuring the clergy, whose children he said never thrived, and whose widows were left destitute. An apostolical life, according to Audley, required only books, meat, and drink, to be had, for fifty pounds a year! Celibacy, voluntary poverty, and all the mortifications of a primitive christian, were the virtues practised by this puritan among his money bags.

Yet Audley’s was that worldly wisdom which derives all its strength from the weaknesses of mankind. Every thing was to be obtained by stratagem, and it was his maxim, that, to grasp our object the faster, we must go a little round about it. His life is said to have been one of intricacies and mysteries, using indirect means in all things; but, if he walked in a labyrinth, it was to bewilder others; for the clue was still in his own hand; all he sought was that his designs should not be discovered by his actions. His

word, we are told, was his bond; his hour was punctual; and his opinions were compressed and weighty; but, if he was true to his bond-word, it was only a part of the system to give facility to the carrying on of his trade, for he was not strict to his honour; the pride of victory, as well as the passion for acquisition, combined in the character of Audley, as in more tremendous conquerors. His partners dreaded the effects of his law-library, and usually relinquished a claim rather than stand a suit against a latent quibble. When one menaced him by showing some money-bags, which he had resolved to empty in law against him, Audley, then in office in the court of wards, with a sarcastic grin, asked 'Whether the bags had any bottom?' 'Aye!' replied the exulting possessor, striking them. 'In that case I care not,' retorted the cynical officer of the court of wards; 'for in this court I have a constant spring, and I cannot spend in other courts more than I gain in this.' He had at once the meanness which would evade the law, and the spirit which could resist it.

The career of Audley's ambition closed with the extinction of the 'court of wards,' by which he incurred the loss of above 100,000*l.* On that occasion he observed that 'his ordinary losses were as the shavings of his beard, which only grew the faster by them; but the loss of this place was like the cutting off a member; which was irrecoverable.' The hoary usurer pined at the decline of his genius, discoursed on the vanity of the world, and hinted at retreat. A facetious friend told him a story of an old rat, who, having acquainted the young rats that he would at length retire to his hole, desiring none to come near him, their curiosity, after some days, led them to venture to look into the hole; and there they discovered the old rat sitting in the midst of a rich parmesan cheese. It is probable that the loss of the last 100,000*l.* disturbed his digestion, for he did not long survive his court of wards.

ROBINSON CRUSOE.

ROBINSON CRUSOE, the favourite of the learned and the unlearned, of the youth and the adult; the book that was to constitute the library of Rousseau's *Emilius*, owes its secret charm to its being a new representation of human nature, yet drawn from an existing state: this picture of self-education, self-inquiry, self-happiness, is scarcely a fiction, although it includes all the magic of romance; and is not a mere narrative of truth, since it displays all the forcible genius of one of the most original minds our literature can boast. The history of the work is therefore interesting. It was treated in the author's time as a mere idle romance, for the philosophy was not discovered in the story; after his death it was considered to have been pillaged from the papers of Alexander Selkirk, confided to the author; and the honour, as well as the genius, of De Foe, were alike questioned.

The entire history of this work of genius may now be traced, from the first hints to the mature state, to which only the genius of De Foe could have wrought it. Captain Burney, in the fourth

volume of his "voyages and discoveries to the South Sea," has arranged the evidence in the clearest manner, and finally settled a point hitherto obscure and uncertain. I have little to add; but, as the origin of this universal book is not likely to be sought for in Captain Burney's valuable volumes of voyages, here it may not be out of its place.

The adventures of Selkirk are well known; he was found on the desert island of Juan Fernandez, where he had formerly been left, by Woodes Rogers and Edward Cooke, who in 1712 published their voyages, and told the extraordinary history of Crusoe's prototype, with all those curious and minute particulars which Selkirk had freely communicated to them. This narrative of itself is extremely interesting; and has been given entire by Captain Burney; it may also be found in the *Biographia Britannica*.

In this artless narrative we may discover more than the embryo of Robinson Crusoe.—The first appearance of Selkirk, "a man clothed in goats' skins, who looked more wild than the first owners of them." The two huts he had built, the one to dress his victuals; the other to sleep in; his contrivance to get fire by rubbing two pieces of pimento wood together: his distress for the want of bread and salt till he came to relish his meat without either; his wearing out his shoes, till he grew so accustomed to be without them, that he could not for a long time afterwards, on his return home, use them without inconvenience; his bedstead of his own contriving, and his bed of goat-skins; when his gunpowder failed, his teaching himself by continual exercise to run as swiftly as the goats; his falling from a precipice in catching hold of a goat, stunned and bruised, till, coming to his senses, he found the goat dead under him; his taming kids to divert himself by dancing with them and his cats; his converting a nail into a needle; his sewing his goat-skins with little thongs of the same; and, when his knife was worn to the back, contriving to make blades out of some iron hoops. His solacing himself in this solitude by singing psalms, and preserving a social feeling in his fervent prayers. And the habitation which Selkirk had raised, to reach which, they followed him, "with difficulty climbing up and creeping down many rocks, till they came at last to a pleasant spot of ground, full of grass and of trees, where stood his two huts, and his numerous tame goats shewed his solitary retreat;" and, finally, his indifference to return to a world, from which his feelings had been so perfectly weaned.—Such were the first rude materials of a new situation in human nature: an European in a primeval state, with the habits or mind of a savage.

The year after this account was published, Selkirk and his adventures attracted the notice of Steele; who was not likely to pass unobserved a man and a story so strange and so new. In his paper of "the Englishman," Dec. 1713, he communicates further

particulars of Selkirk. Steele became acquainted with him; he says, that "he could discern that he had been much separated from company, from his aspect and gesture. There was a strong but cheerful seriousness in his looks, and a certain disregard to the ordinary things about him, as if he had been sunk in thought. The man frequently bewailed his return to the world, which could not, he said, with all its enjoyments, restore him to the tranquillity of his solitude." Steele adds another curious change in this wild man, which occurred some time after he had seen him. "Though I had frequently conversed with him, after a few months absence, he met me in the street, and, though he spoke to me, I could not recollect that I had seen him. Familiar converse in this town had taken off the loneliness of his aspect, and quite altered the air of his face. De Foe could not fail of being struck by these interesting particulars of the character of Selkirk; but probably it was another observation of Steele, which threw the germ of Robinson Crusoe into the mind of De Foe. "It was matter of great curiosity to hear him, as he was a man of sense, give an account of the *different revolutions in his own mind in that long solitude.*"

The work of De Foe, however, was no sudden ebullition; long engaged in political warfare, condemned to suffer imprisonment, and at length struck by a fit of apoplexy, this unhappy and unprosperous man of genius on his recovery was reduced to a comparative state of solitude. To his injured feelings and lonely contemplations, Selkirk in his desert isle, and Steele's vivifying hint, often occurred; and to all these we perhaps owe the instructive and delightful tale, which shews man what he can do for himself, and what the fortitude of piety does for man. Even the personage of Friday is not a mere coinage of his brain: a Mosquito-Indian described by Dampier was the prototype. Robinson Crusoe was not given to the world till 1719; seven years after the publication of Selkirk's Adventures. Selkirk could have no claims on De Foe; for he had only supplied the man of genius with that which lies open to all; and which no one had, or perhaps could have, converted into the wonderful story we possess but De Foe himself. Had De Foe not written Robinson Crusoe, the name and story of Selkirk had been passed over like others of the same sort; yet Selkirk has the merit of having detailed his own history, in a manner so interesting, as to have attracted the notice of Steele, and to have inspired the genius of De Foe.

After this, the originality of Robinson Crusoe will no longer be suspected; and the idle tale which Dr. Beattie has repeated of Selkirk having supplied the materials of his story to De Foe, from which our author borrowed his work, and published for his own profit, will be finally put to rest. This is due to the injured honour and the genius of De Foe.

ART. XI.—*Report of the National Schools in Hayti, founded and maintained by the King.*

The following account of the progress of education at Hayti is extremely interesting, because it promises to communicate by degrees, useful instruction to a part of the human species, whose inferiority of intellect has more generally been taken for granted than provided. We have not the least doubt, but mental degeneracy may be propagated as well as bodily defect; and that a series of generations where-in education and instruction have been neglected, will produce a much inferior, being at the last term of the series, than the first. For like

reason, where mental improvement has been sedulously attended to for several generations, the capacity of the individuals will by this means be gradually improved, and the last offspring will rank higher in the scale of being, than the first member of the family. Heartily wishing success to every means of improving the black as well as the white portion of the human race, we present the following short but interesting account to our readers.

EDR.

Annual Report of the Progress of the National School in Hayti, from 1st September, 1816, to 1st September, 1817.

Where Established.	When Commenced.	Masters.	Annual income of the Masters.	No. of scholars reading the Scriptures.	No. of scholars learning Arithmetic.	Total No. of Scholars.	REMARKS.
Cape Henry	Oct. 18, 1816.	T. B. Gulliver	12000 dolls.	47	62	170	This school has furnished Monitors to all the rest.
Port de Paix	April, 1817.	prince Sanden	do.			100	
Sans Souci	May, 1817.	J. Daniel, M.A.	do.			50	Mr. Daniel also instructs both the princes in English.
Gonaives	May, 1817.	Sweet	do.			100	
4	—	4	4,800 dolls.			420	

Cape Henry, Hayti, 19th Sept. 1817.

At Mr. Gulliver's school divine service is performed, according to the forms of the church of England, every Sunday morning, by one of the strangers resident at the Cape. The hour is half past eight, and the congregation of boys respectable; the strangers occasionally attend, especially the ladies of the family of an American merchant, who are in general pretty regular. A chaplain of the church of England would be a desirable acquisition.

One of Mr. Gulliver's scholars, a son of the baron Ferrier, has formed a little elementary school at his father's house, where a room has been allotted to him, in which he instructs several of his young companions in the intervals between school hours.

A school room is building at Sans Souci, designed for the reception of one thousand scholars.

At these National Schools instruction is gratuitous. The number of Mr. Gulliver's scholars will be shortly increased to two hundred.

Besides these National Schools, founded and maintained by the munificence of the king, the town of the Cape is filled with small elementary schools for the poorer classes, who cannot all be accommodated at present in the National Schools, and are compelled under a heavy penalty, to send their children to school as soon as they attain a sufficient age. The price of education, at these schools, where the children are taught reading, writing, and ciphering, is extremely moderate.

Quarterly reports of the state and progress of the National Schools will be hereafter officially published in the Haytian Gazettes.

ART. XII.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature and Politics.*

From the Gentleman's Magazine.

MR. URBAN,—You have doubtless heard of *Waterloo Waltzes*, *Waterloo Bonnets*, *Waterloo Shoes*, &c. but not yet perhaps of *Waterloo Literature*. By this term, is meant a narratory style, which resembles the pell-mell of the Battle, and consists in bulls, erroneous dates, and writing history, without collation of the incidents, or examination of opposing authorities. Its general principle is, to give *ex parte* evidence a grand display, that the reader may have the pleasure of finding it contradicted as he proceeds.

The intention of this essay being a *jeu d'esprit*, the names of the authors will not ill-naturedly be given: but the reader may be assured that the passages really exist.

The Battle commenced by the famous attack upon the villa called here *Hougomont*. The Literature also begins with a misomer: for it is allowed upon all sides that *Goumont* is the true appellation.

A Paddy, who was an eye-witness of this gallant affair, after an elegant pleonasm, informing us that the inhabitants fled to the forest of Soignes for security, "*and in the hopes of saving their lives*," says, that "our troops retiring into the garden did not yield one inch of their ground." The same writer speaking of the fruitless efforts of the enemy, uses these words, "at no period, during the day, notwithstanding the heavy masses of infantry and cavalry which were advanced against our centre, time after time, he was never able to force our position."

I proceed from hence to a concentrated account by an author, who with peculiar felicity distinguishes the *Ex-Emperor* by the elegant appellation of the *Corricom*.

The first thing I shall notice is an anarchy of dates and incidents, very similar to the bull before quoted. It is a letter of the Marquis of Anglesea, in exculpation of his regiment, the 7th Hussars.

This letter is dated Brussels, *June 2*, 1815, above a fortnight before the battle alluded to: and, notwithstanding, speaks of the 17th and 18th of that month; as well as bears the signature of *Anglesea*, not of *Usbridge*. Now as

every body knows that the battles of *Quatre-bras* and *Waterloo* were fought upon the 16th and 18th of June, we are, I presume, to consider this letter as sent before it was written, or some such extraordinary event, far beyond the common course of things.

We are next told that Bonaparte ascended the Observatory, though it is plain that there were no means of so doing, and that the report of his guide disproves the fact.

Napoleon put himself at the head of his guard, consisting of *fifteen hundred* men: to which the enemy, greatly diminished in numbers, could offer no effectual resistance. As the guards amounted to *fifteen thousand*, the Compiler proves also to be a dealer in diminution of numbers, and in a large way.

In defiance of the guide's account, Bonaparte is made to escape in his carriage, which is described as "a complete office, bedchamber, dressing-room eating-room, and kitchen." This Iliad in a nutshell is thus converted into an impossibility. Though Fielding says that stage-coachmen consider human beings only as baggage, whom, without regard to variations of size, by squeezing, they compress into the most portable form, to avoid waste of room; yet they would scratch their ingenious heads for a resolution of this wonderful convenience. The fact is, it only contained packages for various services, which were taken out and in, wherever Bonaparte stopped, as they were wanted; and were very ingeniously stowed in the carriage, like a dressing-case.

In a French account of the battle, mention is made of the *ricochet* shots of the English artillery. *Ricochet* shots mean those which bound along the ground like the duck and drake sport of boys upon ponds. The learned Compiler has converted *ricochet* into *rocket*, as the *correct reading*, and accordingly made quite a different material of the implement of war intended by the French writer. The following anecdote will illustrate the ingenuity of this conversion. It is usual at the Universities, upon matriculation of a student, to put down the father's profession. A great lawyer, upon his entrance, was required to state the calling of his fa-

ther. As he was a native of the Northern coal counties, he replied, that his father was a *fitter*, an appellation given to a certain vocation connected with the trade of the black diamonds. *Fitter, fitter!* exclaimed the tutor; what is that? put down *fiddler*.

The Literature of the Secretaries of the two great Masters of the Art of War who were opposed to each other is equally amusing.

The dispatch of our illustrious Duke has like his own victories, no less than between forty and fifty *ands* in it: we have, "at daylight in the morning," instead of "in the morning at daylight:" and, "between that river and the Meuse, between the 10th and 14th of the month," two *betweens* in one line: "excepting by following with," instead of "except by," &c.—The disjunctive powers of *and* are famously exhibited in the following sentence: "*and* having observed that the troops retired from the attack in great confusion; *and* that the march of General Bulow's corps by Frichefont upon Planchenoit *and* La Belle Alliance had begun to take effect: *and* as I could perceive the fire of his cannon, *and* as Marshal Blucher had joined in person," &c.—Grose tells the following story of poor Ames, the bibliographer. He had purchased a block of the capital A; and in order to make a grand display of his acquisition, began his Work with the conjunction *and*, though there was no preceding sentence. *And* and *yet* are the two great hacks of our language. Every body knows the admirable illustration of *yet* in the Aristarchus of Birch. It is singular too, that the Buonapartean bulletins abound with short sentences, and the English with long-winded paragraphs. But, be the Literature of our gallant Heroes what it may, as Victory has bestowed the laurels instead of Apollo, long may they wear them in health, honour, happiness, and the deep respect of their grateful Country! They will not take ill a good humoured joke. They are too high-minded.

The boxing bulletins are not more curious than those of the Ex-Emperor. Towards the end of the day, the Duke of Wellington, through loss of men, fell back, to form a shorter line across the angle of the Nivelles and Charleroi roads. This was not unnoticed by Napoleon, who ordered an advance of some

corps, to occupy the ground deserted by the English voluntarily. Upon this event the bulletin observes, "*In this state of affairs, the battle was gained!*" From the other accounts by a French officer of the staff, it seems to be a rule, that, if the French penetrate within the lines of the Enemy, whether they are able to maintain themselves there or not, they are to be considered victorious. By the same logick, if a thief only enters a house, that house is already robbed; or, as the History of the Emperor Alexander tells us he saved the life of a *drowned man*, the battle is won, and the dead are alive by means of anticipation only. A. B. C.

Public-houses among the Classical Ancients.

The public-houses of the Classical Ancients were, in some things, different from ours. Plutarch mentions a Spartan, who, coming to an inn, did not call for solid fare, but gave the host some meat to dress*. Upon the further demand by the host of cheese and oil, "What!" says the Spartan, "if I had cheese, should I want meat?" The Romans did not recline, but sit, when they took refreshment in taverns, or had irregular meals elsewhere†. Martial adds, that flaggons, chained to posts, were usual in such houses‡. Juvenal well describes the habits of such places:

—In magnâ legatum quære popinâ
Invenies aliquo cum percussore jacentem
Permixtum nautis et furibus aut
fugitiivis.

Inter carnifices et fabros Sandapilarum
Et resupinati cessantia tympana Galli.
Æqua ubi libertas, communia pocula,
lectus

Non alius cuiquam, nec mensa remotior ulli. L. iii. Sat. viii.

According to this account, there were no boxes, as at modern coffee-houses; but the drinking-vessels and tables were common. Persons attended, who sold ointments§ and perfumes, and addressed the visitor with *Dominus* and *Rex*, and other flattering expressions, if they had hopes of custom.¶ The Land-lady had her dress tucked up

* Laconic Apophthegms.

† Mart. Epigr. L. v. Ep. LXXI.

‡ L. vii. Ep. LX.

§ Hence the *uncta pepina* of Horace
¶ Juvenal, ubi supra.

(*succincta*) for convenience and expedition; and brought pitchers of wine for the guests to taste:

Et cum venali Cyanè succincta lagenâ.*

In the Inns on the road, there was both hot and cold meat.† Tiberius prohibited their selling any baker's commodities.‡ Nero permitted only boiled vegetables; though, before, every kind of delicacy was usual.§ Tavern-keepers had a particular costume, for Heliogabalus caused himself to be represented in one.|| We are told by modern Antiquaries, that the *Stathmoi*, or *Λαγναίαι*, of the ancients were places accommodated with all things requisite for travellers of every description; and it was at them that the soldiers used to refresh themselves, and change their horses and carriages; from which custom of changing, in later times, even fresh garments were also called *λαγναίαι*. It must however be allowed, that though the places grew to be eminent, and large at last, yet at first it was only one *disersorium*, or inn, on which there was the sign of the *Ansa*, by which name, for that reason, the whole station itself was afterwards so called.¶ By these *Stathmoi* the ancients also regulated the stages of their journey.** The *Ansa*, or sign, was the handle or ear of a pitcher, in which sense it is used by Virgil,†† &c.

As to *Gin-shops*, &c. the Ancients reckoned it mean to buy wine from a tavern.‡‡

Of the Wine-cellars, the Herculean excavations have supplied information, pretty well known; but there was a provision for securing what would otherwise have been lost by leakage.‡‡

Sales by Auction. In the Roman sales, a spear was fixed in the forum, by which stood a orier, who proclaimed the articles. A catalogue was made in tables, called *Auctionariae*; the vendor

* Juvenal, ubi supra.

† Sueton. in Vitellio, c. 13.

‡ Sueton. in Vitellio, c. 34.

§ Id. c. 16. || Lampridius in vitâ.

¶ Hearne's Antiq. Discourses, i. 38.

** Herodian, L. ii. c. ult. p. 83. Ed.

Paræus.

†† Du Cange in voce.

‡‡ Cicero in L. Pison.

§§ Pallad. de Re Rust. i. 13. Inter Script. Rei Rusticæ, p. 236. Ed. Lugd. 1605.

was denominated *Auctor*, and the bidders *Secutores*. They signified their bidding by lifting up their fingers, and the highest bidder succeeded. The Magistrate's permission was necessary for a sale. About the *forum* were a number of Silversmiths' or rather Bankers' shops, where things sold by Auction were entered in tables, and sealed. At their shops, the auctions were in general made, that these *Argentarii* might note on the tables the names of the buyers; and the goods were delivered under authority of some magistrate. *Buying-in*, or redemption, was made by giving security through a friend, which was termed *Depicere libellos*.* Petronius gives the inscription (similar to our handbill) of an auction literally this: "Julius Proculus will make an auction of his superfluous goods, to pay his debts."† Estates, pictures, &c. were sold by the Romans in this way as now; and sales sometimes lasted for two months.‡

In the middle age, goods were cried, and sold to the highest, and the sound of a trumpet added with a very loud noise. The use of the spear was retained, the auctions being called *subhastationes*, and the *subhastator*, or auctioneer, was sworn to sell the goods faithfully. A cryer stood under the spear, as in the Roman æra, and was in the 13th century called *Gurner*.§

In London, Sales by Auction were held at Mercers'-Hall, and other places.||

Auctionarius was a tradesman who augmented his property: properly speaking, he who bought old, worn, and damaged goods, to sell them dearer afterwards.¶

Translation of a Chinese Tea Merchant's Declaration, and description of a Chinese Musical Instrument.

To the Editor of the Asiatic Journal.

SIR—The following is almost a li-

* Sigonius de Judiciis, L. 2. c. 24. Rom. Hist. Antholog. 225. Juvenal, L. 3. s. vii. Cicero. Orat. i. 17. 316. 729. Ed. Freig.

† Satyric. i. p. 198. Ed. Nodot.

‡ Sueton. Cæs. c. 50. Capitoline in Antonine.

§ Du Cange, v. *Gurner*, *subhastare*, &c.

|| Hawkins's Musick. V. 173.

¶ Du Cange in voce.

ral translation of one of those papers which are occasionally found in the chests of tea; it may perhaps amuse some of your readers, and will at any rate apprise them of certain advantageous qualities in Hyson, of which they are probably ignorant, so that, not satisfied with, "*te veniente die, te decedente,*" they will be tempted to imagine with Dr. Johnson, that "*Te sine nil altum mens ineboat.*"

Declaration of Cow Long.

NARRATION UPON HYSON TEA.

This capital tea, a transparent jewel, with a snowy crystalline bud, is the first under heaven.

Of an estimable description which is beautiful, and without defect, perfect and not able to be surpassed; of Hyson, the very right hand, anciently and universally established amongst distant people, from its praiseworthy flavour.

This Hyson, having traversed hills and seas; sought from the heights of southern exalted mountains, which tower above the clouds, rises to that perfection, that being compared with other teas, it maintains the superiority.

It has a fine odour, containing an extreme degree of excellence; having been received formerly, and at the present time with reverential eagerness, by persons of rural habits.

These sprigs, of established reputation, are for people, who travel, truly precious, having a manifestly laudable character, for their excellent and approved description.

It, possesses unceasing superiority, while prepared, with unremitting skill; its species, although beautiful, and venerable, has inexhaustible virtue.

This tea, (of the high court) when first prepared and violently operated upon with hot water, has a superior faculty of performing wonders, its first buds and fibres after three full and complete springs, are excellent, to remove obstructions, to rouse from intoxication or drowsiness, to slake thirst, and this more than golden production makes old age retire, procrastinates stale years, and like a precious gem, spreading over the taste and palate, gives a secret courage, in calamities, remote or near; its desirable fragrance, spread through the inner chamber, shall receive universal approbation.

You may have remarked the characters or shop marks upon the sides of nearly all tea chests; these are probably

the names of the cultivator or plantation where the tea grows, names truly auspicious, if we may judge from a literal translation; the following are a few;

- "Infinite fragrance."
- "Sweet-scented region."
- "Heavenly odour."
- "Vernal origin."
- "Great perfection."
- "Gem-like buds."
- "Persevering excellence."
- "Estimable duration."
- "Sincere perfection."
- "Bud of Spring."
- "Established abundance."
- "Fountain of heaven."

I am sorry to observe, that these pleasing professions are not at all times borne out by the qualities of the article enclosed, and it does happen, in the course of events, that upon the opening of "sincere perfection," or "the bud of spring," a large stone surrounded with paddy chaff, will occasionally make its unwelcome appearance.

I received, some time since, from China, a "Cheng," or "Seng," of which a short description may possibly interest some of your musical readers. The instrument consists of seventeen bamboo tubes, tipped with ivory, and having each a small hole, which are inserted perpendicularly, in a sort of glazed bowl, of between two and three inches diameter, presenting a very delicate and pleasing appearance. There is a mouth piece, faced with ivory, in the side of the bowl, and the wind passing up, through the tubes, gives an agreeable note, somewhat resembling that of a hautboy, when one, or more of the holes, are stopped by the finger. It appears to be finished, with great nicety, as each tube has, at the inserted end, a small vibrating reed, which is kept in its position, by a very minute piece of lead, or composition. The notes, which are thirteen in number, four of the tubes being silent, and merely placed there by way of finish, are all in the natural key, strictly in unison with the pianoforte, with which, in simple airs, the cheng forms not an unpleasant accompaniment; they follow in this order C F F (alt.) C (alt.) D (alt.) E (alt.) G D B E G A B. The G and B, you will observe, occurs twice, and is in each case, precisely the same note.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

ROBERT HUNTER.

Description by a Muhammadan of a Sati, or Burning of a Widow.

The circumstance recently took place near Commillah. A niece of the late Raja of Tipperah was the object in question. About four o'clock in the evening I went to the place pointed out for the sacrifice; soon after which the procession made its appearance to the sound of martial music; upon a cot (such as in general is made use of by Europeans) appeared the corpse at full length, elegantly dressed in the finest muslin, having his face painted after the manner of the Rajputs, and a star made of numerous coloured threads and small thin pieces of bamboo, about the size of a thick darning needle, attached to his ear. Upon the same cot, in a reclining posture, was his wife most superbly dressed in muslin and fine clothes; her hair was loose and encircled in various wreaths of yellow flowers, having rings of pure gold in her ear and nose, and upon her wrists and ankles were rings of pure silver. Numerous attempts were made by her relations, and by myself, to dissuade her from the rash step she was about to make, but all to no purpose. At length the night fast approaching, various culis were employed to dig a hole in the ground, which was made in the form of a cross, during the making of which she repeatedly made inquiries as to its exactness. Having satisfied herself upon this subject, she then observed that there was not a sufficiency of wood to keep up a large fire till day-light, and then directed her confessor (a Brahman) to get for her seven Supari trees, which being brought, she then expressed a wish to have the ceremony commenced upon;—she then descended from the cot, placed a number of cowries in a cloth, which she distributed only to her own cast, repeating a short sentence from the Vedas, and receiving for answer the words Ram, Hori, Ram, Krishno, Hori. She was then bathed, and walked round the funeral pile (which was about six feet long and four broad) three times, and was again bathed; she then distributed her wearing apparel, but retained all her ornaments; again walked four times (in all seven) round the pile, and was again bathed; she then advanced to the pile and spoke to her female relations, recommending their following her example (as I was afterwards told) desired a Brahmin to give her a black pigeon,

and resolutely stepped upon the pile. The corpse of her deceased husband was then brought and placed close to her, which she clasped in her arms and kissed; then desired her friends to make no delay, and retired to rest—to rest I may safely say, as upon feeling her pulse before the fire was communicated, I could not perceive the least motion in it. Fire was then communicated to the pile amidst loud shouts from the spectator's, the music playing the whole time, and although the flame was very bright, yet for a time it was completely hidden from the sight by showers of short bamboos which were thrown into it by the by-standers, both Hindus and Musulmen. The Sati was a most beautiful woman, very fair, and having a countenance somewhat resembling the Chinese. Suffice it to say, that I retired filled with sensations of a nature not the most enviable. The sight was altogether in the words of the poet:

“Sublimely grand and awfully terrific.”

MIRZA KAZEEM.

Tipperah, 30th Dec. 1816.

CEYLON.

During the march of the British forces upon the capital of Kandy, lieutenant Lyttleton and a sergeant of the 73d regiment having attacked a wild elephant, were pursued by the gigantic animal; and the latter, whose name we cannot learn, was unfortunately overtaken and torn piecemeal. Lieutenant Lyttleton found safety in a tree, where he was obliged to remain many hours closely watched by a dreadful adversary, whose sagacity exceeds that of almost any other animal, and whose swiftness in a woody country is very far superior to that of the fleetest horse, as from his ponderous weight he overthrows those obstacles which the horse is obliged to shun.

AN AMERICAN SEAMAN BROUGHT AWAY FROM A DESERT ROCK AFTER THREE YEARS RESIDENCE ON IT.

Mr. Powell, commander of the Queen Charlotte, informs us of the interesting circumstance of his having recovered from a rock twenty-one miles N. W. of Nooaheevah (one of the Marquesas), a man that had been its solitary inhabitant for nearly three years. His account stated, that early in 1814 he proceeded thither from Nooaheevah with four others, all of whom had left an

American ship there, for the purpose of procuring feathers, that were in high estimation among the natives of Nooaheevah; but losing their boat on the rock three of his companions in a short time perished through famine, and principally from thirst, as there was no water but what was supplied by rains. His fourth companion continued with him but a few weeks; when he formed a resolution of attempting to swim, with the aid of a splintered fragment that remained of their boat, to an island, in which effort he must have inevitably perished. He had once himself attempted to quit his forlorn situation by constructing a catamaran, but failed, and lost all means of any future attempt. They had originally taken fire with them from Nooaheevah, which he had always taken care to continue, except on one occasion, when, it became extinguished, and never could have been restored but by a careful preservation of three or four grains of gunpowder, and the lock of a musket which he had broke up for the construction of his catamaran. The flesh and blood of wild birds were his sole aliment: with the latter he quenched his thirst in seasons of long draughts, and the skulls of his departed companions were his only drinking vessels. The discovery made of him from the Queen Charlotte was purely accidental: the rock was known to be desolate and barren, and the appearance of a fire as the vessel passed it on an evening, attracted notice, and produced an inquiry which proved fortunate to the forlorn inhabitant of the rock, in procuring his removal to Nooaheevah, whither Mr. Powell conveyed him, and left him under the care of an European of the name of Wilson, who has resided there for many years, and with whom the hermit had had a previous acquaintance.—*Gaz.*

ABORIGENES OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

The melancholy instances of the fate of those deluded people who venture to desert from their duty, we should hope would operate as a warning against any future attempts of this nature, by showing them what they have to expect from rashly exposing themselves to the hostility of the natives, rather than endeavouring, by habits of industry and attention to their duty, to open a path to their future comfort and prosperity.

The body of a shepherd belonging to the estate of Mulgoa, who had been recently murdered by some natives, was found on Monday last on a grazing ground near the farm, in a most mutilated and mangled state, having been perforated with spears in several parts, and otherwise most barbarously used. The flock in the charge of this unfortunate man consisted of upwards of two hundred very fine sheep, most of which were thrown down an immense precipice by the savages, and the remainder, about fifty in number, were barbarously mangled and killed, many of the unoffending and defenceless creatures having had their eyes gored with spears, which were afterwards driven into the head. Parties went out in quest of the murderers as soon as the melancholy information reached the contiguous settlements; who will, it is to be hoped, fall in with this desperate horde of wanton assassins.

From the account of the deserters from Hunter's river, who have been reduced to the necessity of returning to that settlement for the preservation of their lives from the fury of the natives, it may evidently be implied that a connexion or correspondence must subsist between the hordes in our vicinity, and those considerably to the northward, and that all within this circle of communication are determined upon the destruction of every white person that may unhappily fall into their power. We have heretofore experienced their savage cruelty indiscriminately satiating itself on the mother and infant. Pardon, amity, and every effort to conciliation; which to all appearance they received with gladness, have been perverted to the ends of a vile and most malignant treachery, whenever an occasion offered for the exercise of their natural ferocity, which is the same on every part of the coast we are acquainted with. An unrelaxed spirit of hostility is the undeviating feature in their character. If the exhausted mariner attempt to quench his thirst upon their inhospitable shores, he flies or falls beneath their sullen vengeance; while the nearer tribes, to whose incursions our settlements are exposed, are rendered formidable by the facility of retreat, and the difficulty of penetrating into their concealments. They no longer act in small predatory parties, as heretofore, but now carry the appearance of an extensive combination, in

which all but the few who remain harmless in the settlements, are united, in a determination to do all the harm they can. In self defence we can alone find safety; and the vengeance they provoke, will, it may yet be hoped, however mildly it may be exerted, reduce them to the necessity of adopting less offensive habits.

Unpleasant accounts are received from the farm of captain Fowler, in the district of Bringelly, of the murder of several persons by the natives frequenting that quarter. The above farm was occupied by Mr. Edmund Wright; whose account of the transaction states, that on 21st. Dec. last the servants' dwellings of G. T. Palmer, Esq. at the Nepean, were plundered by a group of twenty or thirty of the natives. On Sunday four of Mr. Palmer's men, namely, Edward Mackey, Patrick M'Hugh, John Lewis, and—Farrel, accompanied by John Murray, servant of John Hagan, Dennis Hagan, stock-keeper to captain Brooks, and William Brazil, a youth in the employ of Mr. Edmund Wright, crossed the Nepean in the hope of recovering the property that had been taken away the day before, and getting into a marshy flat ground nearly opposite Mr. Fowler's farm, about two hundred yards distance from the bank of the river, they were perceived and immediately encircled by a large body of natives, who closing rapidly upon them, disarmed those who carried muskets, and commenced a terrible attack, as well by a discharge of arms they had captured, as by an innumerable shower of spears. M'Hugh, Dennis Hagan, John Lewis, and John Murray, fell in an instant, either from shot or by the spear, and William Brazil received a spear in the back between the shoulders, which it is hoped and believed will not be fatal. Some of the natives crossed the river over to captain Fowler's farm, and pursued the remaining white men up to the farm residence, but being few in number they retired, and re-crossing the river, kept away until the day following (Monday last), when at about ten o'clock in the forenoon a large number, sixty it was imagined, crossed again, and commenced a work of desolation and atrocity by beginning to destroy the inclosures of the various yards. The house they completely stripped, and Mrs. Wright, with one of the

farm labourers, having secreted herself in the loft in the hope of escaping the cruelty of the assailants, their concealment was suspected, and every possible endeavour made to murder them.—Spears were darted through the roof from without, and through sheets of bark which were laid as a temporary ceiling, from which the two persons had repeated hair breadth escapes. William Bagnell, who was the person in the loft with Mrs. Wright, finding that their destruction was determined upon, at length threw open a window in the roof, and seeing a native known by the name of Daniel Budbury, begged their lives; and received for answer, that "they should not be killed this time." After completely plundering the house, they re-crossed the river, very dispassionately bidding Mrs. Wright and Bagnell a good bye! Mr. Wright's standing corn has been carried away in great quantity, and all provisions whatever were also carried off.

—
ENGLISH BISHOPRICS.

Statement of the Value of the different Sees, according to the present Rentals; the inequality among them is generally little known.

Canterbury—The Duke of Rutland's cousin (Dr. C. Manners Sutton)	£20,000
York—Lord Vernon's and Lord Harcourt's brother (Dr. Edward Venable Vernon)	14,000
Durham—Lord Barrington's uncle (H. S. Barrington)	24,000
Winchester—Lord North's brother (Hon. B. North)	18,000
Ely—The Duke of Rutland's tutor (Dr. Sparke)	12,000
London—(Dr. Howley)	9,000
Bath and Wells—Duke of Gloucester's tutor (Dr. R. Beaden)	5,000
Chichester—Duke of Richmond's tutor (Dr. Buckner)	4,000
Litchfield and Coventry—Lord Cornwallis's uncle (Dr. J. Cornwallis)	6,000
Worcester—(Dr. Cornwall)	4,000
Hereford—(Dr. Huntingford)	4,000
Bangor—The son of the Queen's English master (Dr. J. W. Majendie)	5,000
St. Asaph—Duke of Beaufort's tutor (Dr. Luxmore)	6,000
Oxford—Brother of the Regent's tutor (Dr. Jackson)	3,000

Lincoln—Mr. Pitt's secretary (Dr. G. P. Tomlins)	5,000
Salisbury—Princess Charlotte's tutor (Dr. Fisher)	6,000
Norwich—(Dr. Bathurst)	4,000
Carlisle—Duke of Portland's tu- tor (Dr. Goodenough)	3,000
St. David's—(Dr. Burgess)	5,000
Rochester—Duke of Portland's secretary (Dr. King)	1,500
Exeter—Lord Chichester's bro- ther (Hon. G. Pelham)	3,000
Peterborough—(Dr. J. Parsons)	1,000
Bristol—Mr. Percival's tutor (Dr. W. L. Mansel)	1,000
Llandaff—Mr. Marsh late (Dr. Watson)	900
Gloucester—(Hon. Dr. H. Ry- der)	1,200
Chester—Lord Ellenborough's brother (Dr. H. Law)	1,000

MEMORANDUMS OF A VIEW HUNTER.
Shakspeare's Cliff.

SALLIED forth at seven in the morn-
ing, without giving any warning to my
indolent companions, who seemed to
feel none of the inspiration of the view
hunting power.

After looking round the harbour,
part of which they were busy in re-
pairing, pushed on towards Shaks-
peare's Cliff. Found the people of all
classes frank, civil, and willing to give
information. I attributed this partly
to their incomes depending much on
strangers, and partly to the manners
on the other side. I had not yet been
across. Passed the fortifications, which
are extensive and strong; but they
have lost much of their interest, as
they now seem useless. Under the
alarm of invasion, their importance
would even have added to their pictu-
resqueness.

The highest part of the Cliff, which
has been named after a dramatist, the
first of modern, and superior to any of
the ancient times, must be, I should
think, four or five hundred feet above
the beach. The sea view from hence
is truly magnificent. The morning
was clear and calm, and the silver sea
almost as motionless as a lake. Several
vessels were passing lazily along both
ways. The coast of France seemed
not much farther off than that of Fife
from Musselburgh, but none of the
objects on it distinct. Examined this
view in all its bearings for some time;
and as I looked along the sublime wind-

ing wall of chalky cliffs, stretching to
the west, which forms part of the south-
ern boundary of the island, I felt emo-
tions which, I trust, are natural to the
British heart.

After making some prudent slow ad-
vances, I brought my head to bear
looking down this dizzy height for a
minute. On retiring a few steps to a
safer station, I thought of the minute
description of this Cliff given by our
draughtsman, and which has been the
cause of its being honoured with his
name.

"How fearful

And dizzy 'tis, to cast one's eyes so low!
The crows and choughs that wing the
mid-way air,
Show scarce so gross as beetles. Half-
way down
Hangs one that gathers samphire; dread-
ful trade!

Methinks he seems no bigger than his
head.

The fishermen, that walk upon the
beach,

Appear like mice; and yon tall anchoring
bark

Diminish'd to her cock; her cock a baucy,
Almost too small for sight. The mur-
muring surge,

That on the unnumbered idle pebbles
chafes,

Cannot be heard so high. I'll look no
more,

Lest my brain turn, and the deficient
sight

Topple down headlong."

I was informed, that there is still
one man who occasionally follows the
"dreadful trade" of gathering sam-
phire by means of a ladder and a rope.

Having now done as much as a view-
hunter could with safety, I was satis-
fied. As a token of my success, and
to amuse my companion, I carried off
the flower of a very large thistle that
was flourishing on the highest part of
the Cliff, and seemed proud of the place
where it grew.

A Breakfast.

Called at the hotel. The mistress
said I had time to go up to the Castle.
I took the hint. Peeped into some of
the vaults or excavations in the chalk,
which are deep and high, and serve for
storehouses and cellars. Passed the
bathing-ground. About half a dozen
of machines. The descent from the
shingle is very steep. The machines

are let down by a rope from a windlass. Ascended the Castlehill. The road winds round, and up the hill, in a very pleasing style. As I was going to enter through a gate, about 100 feet lower than the base of the wall, where there is a battery, a little old man came up to me, and told me there was no thoroughfare there; but that he was one of the under wardens, and he would show me the whole. I should have been happier to have followed him as a guide than he to have conducted me; but I thought I had not time; and after wavering unpleasantly for a minute or two, I forced myself to plead an excuse for the present. He saw my anxiety to enter with him, and pressed me the more. It would only take a quarter of an hour. I could not spare even that. To my great annoyance, for I had a strong desire to comply with his wishes, this little old under warden followed me with the perseverance of a French beggar.

Distanced him in the ascent. My time was waning fast. Posted up the hill. Passed the turnpike gate to get a view of the contour of the eastern side of the castle. It is a very extensive old building. The view to the west quite Scottish. The priory at the bottom seems to be of considerable extent, of the old buttress kind of architecture. The dell, looking back into the country, strongly resembles a Scottish glen. Descended, but could not possibly resist running up and passing through the northern gate. The walls of vast thickness. The hollow just by, which I took at first for the gate, is formed by a building jutting over. In the inner part of the gate-arch found a centinel's room. An old invalid civilly asked me if I wished to see the castle, and said there was a gentleman waiting to go round. I excused myself again. He was not half so pressing as the little old under warden. Took a peep of the square between the ramparts and the castle, and then descended as rapidly as I could. Some small bells ringing at the side of the road attracted my notice. I perceived they were rung all the way from the debtor's window. I attended to the charitable sound. The little old under warden made his appearance again, but I was out of his sight instantly.

Reached the hotel a little past nine. Found my companions, who had break-

fasted, sallying forth. They alarmed me with the information that the packet was on the very point of sailing. At the same time, the mate attending to get my luggage, confirmed my alarm. To lose a day, and such a day for crossing! The thought was not to be borne. Pressed the waiter and the rest in grand style. A city Smart of the first order, too late in setting out for a review, or to see some other spectacle, could scarcely have done it in a grander. And a dragoon, when the enemy is approaching, might swallow his breakfast more completely, but he could not more rapidly, than I swallowed mine. While I poured out one cup, the waiter poured another. The first was hot water scarcely discoloured, the second was without sugar, and the third without both sugar and milk. Moses, the money-changer, who had attended this morning again, with the hope of inducing me to take gold for my paper, seeing me in such a furor of hurry, kept at a prudent distance, and then retreated. Met the waiter bringing the hot rolls for my breakfast, as I advanced to the bar to pay my bill. Had barely time to listen to the civil folk of the Paris, who hoped I had found myself so comfortable as to recommend their house; but their civil tone somewhat cooled my fervour, and made me give them a kind answer. Unfortunately, at this moment, a lad came for the rest of my things. The fervour returned with this second alarm. I posted on to the custom-house, resolved to take a boat to pursue the packet, and there I found all things as cool and deliberate as any person could wish. I learned the vessel would be ready to sail in an hour or two. The mate advised me to send back the boy with my things to the inn, till he should tell me when it would be necessary to send them to the packet.

Such was the close of this false alarm. I now, however, felt relieved. The only thing I regretted, was losing the comforts which I had anticipated from my breakfast, after my long and varied morning's hunting on Shakspeare's Cliff, and round Dover Castle.

They are not very particular in examining the luggage in leaving Dover, as, of course they don't care how many contraband articles are carried to France with the exception of gold; and that at present from its low price, and

the demand for French gold, was a matter of very little concern; and when people reach good sense on the subject of metal money, it will be of no concern whatever. Walked to the quay, and saw three horses, with a carriage, and one or two gigs, slung into our packet. The current of emigration seems to be still decidedly stronger towards the Continent. Saw a packet come in from Calais. Had only about twenty passengers aboard. One of the packets that sailed a few days before for Calais carried over nearly a hundred. The two currents will be more equal by-and-by.

Passage to Calais.

After waiting for about two hours, we were summoned aboard. The people kept crowding to the last, as only one vessel was to sail this tide. Got under weigh at length. The day was remarkably fine, and the wind, what there was of it, being westerly, was fair. Though the breeze was slight, with the assistance of the tide we got on at the rate of three knots an hour.

Not many ships in sight, but I perceived one that looked very large coming up the channel. I asked the captain if he thought it a ship of war. He said,—O! not very large. It may be a West Indianman. As we neared each other, its size became more conspicuous, and the captain said it might be a frigate. It was so evidently coming across our way, that I feared, from the slightness of the breeze, we might get foul of each other. The steersman had no such fear, for he kept steadily on his course. She was now seen to be a two decker. Counted, I think fifteen guns on her lower deck. The captain then pronounced her to be a 74, which was most probably working her way to Sheerness to be paid off.

She passed a-head of us, within about 100 yards. Every particle of sail was set, and she presented a spectacle equally beautiful and grand. I had often wished to see a line of battle ship in full array, and now I was gratified to the utmost of my wish. As she passed we took off our hats and huzzaed. We saw the officers and men very distinctly. When she had advanced about 3 or 400 yards I heard the boatswain's whistle, and saw the men on the round top in motion. In a few seconds she

was about on her tack. This gave me two or three new views of a 74 under sail. Every view was beautiful, grand, and picturesque. Not an eye upon our deck but was turned towards her, though few of the spectators seemed to share fully in my enthusiasm. The beauty of the day, and the calmness, added to the agreeableness of the sight. I said instinctively, I am satisfied. I have sometimes thought, that I am rather lucky as a view-hunter.

A breeze sprung up. Got on about six knots an hour. The white cliffs of Albion began now visibly to recede, and those of France as visibly to approach. The latter also are white and chalky along the coast towards Boulogne, but not so high. We had some sickness, and the unpleasing symptoms of it; but, from the wind being fair as well as gentle, the exhibitions of the packet-picturesque were, I believe, much below par either for variety or impressiveness. We had several very fine young female islanders on board. They evidently suffered from this scourge of travellers by sea, but they exhibited their sufferings as elegantly as possible. It is dangerous, however, for a view-hunter to meddle with this species of the picturesque, and though he cannot entirely escape seeing, he can be prudent and say nothing. One accident, for the advantage of future beaux, may be recorded.

A beau about sixteen, who was bound with his father and sisters from Dover, on a trip of pleasure to Calais, was very qualmish. He lay with his head upon the edge of the gunwale. This appeared to me, as well as to his father, to place his hat in rather a dangerous predicament. His father spoke to him about it, but he was so qualmish that he did not attend to the advice. At length, from some motion in the vessel, over went his hat. He contrived to raise himself, and called out to stop the vessel. This produced a laugh. Our young beau looked after his chapeau (which had lately cost twenty-five shillings,) as it tilted over the waves, with a mixture of vexation and sickness; a kind of indolent regret. It was a study for a painter. There was a smile on most other countenances. He at length twisted his handkerchief round his head, and laid the said head down exactly where it was before. A me-

mento to carelessness, as his father justly said, and a punishment for obstinacy in not taking prudent advice. The whole formed a fine subject for that unrivalled painter after nature, Wilkie.

At length obtained a glimpse of the steeple at Calais right a-head. The country to the west is hilly and green, but naked, being without wood and apparently houses. The atmosphere over Calais was charged with black watery-looking clouds, which shed an unpleasant gloom over the landscape, while on turning our eyes back to Dover, we saw the sky clear and the sun shining brightly. The British landscape thus assumed a more vivid appearance of gayety from the dark scowling scene before us. This was so contrary to all the fancies we have had sported about the skies and climate of the two countries, that I began to query, whether I should not find a good deal of the common ideas, as usual, drawn more from imagination or prejudice than from facts.

The tide failed us, and we were obliged to come to anchor about half a mile to the east of the mole. We made our passage in about four hours. We had seen a number of boats pushing from the harbour, and we were told it was for us they were labouring out. We soon found the information correct. Five or six came round the vessel. All the crews seemed as if in a hostile fury, and made a hideous noise. This being my first visit to France, of course I was more attentive, to making observations, and every thing impressed me more strongly from its novelty. These boats appeared old, dirty, and uncomfortable. Nor did they inspire the idea of safety at all. The men were not more prepossessing. They were stout, but not well-looking. They were all in a bustle and confusion, working, as it were, against each other, without judgment. There seemed to be no master, or rather all seemed to be masters. They were as furiously busy as angry bees; but the result did not correspond with the appearance of labour. I did not much like trusting myself with them; for though there was not much wind there was a little surf.

The confusion and bustle in the boats seemed to have communicated themselves to the packet. All wanted to get their luggage at once. There

was nothing for some minutes but running against each other and bawling. After having sung out till I was tired, I at length obtained my portmanteau, and got into the rickety boat with about a dozen more. We sat down pretty closely stowed, on wet seats, with our feet on large wet stones. After a good deal of bawling and bustle, on the part of the crew, we pushed from the ship.

The boatman who appeared to take the lead, if there was any master or servant among them, had a strongly marked countenance. The sentinel that appears as if hung in a chain, in Hogarth's Gate of Calais, was a beauty to him. On seeing him, I thought to myself, that those caricature prints of the French face with us are in reality not caricature. But I gradually changed my opinion the more I saw of France. I do not recollect meeting with such another countenance through the whole of my tour. Though no beauty, he seemed rather good natured. Indeed all the rest, after they had hoisted their sail and taken their places, were quiet and civil. They did not seem to be too fond of working; and the tide ebbing strongly down the inside of the mole, a number of men upon it took us in tow.

This mole is of a considerable length. As we were drawn slowly up to the harbour, I took a comparing look around me; and I confess this first survey did not elevate my ideas. It might be mere fancy, but the gate of Britian, Dover, seemed to me to indicate a flourishing country, while the gate of France, Calais, appeared to fore-token a country rather in a stationary if not a decaying condition.

On touching land we were surrounded by a host of porters, each attempting to carry off part of the luggage. I expected never to have seen a particle of mine again. This affair might easily be better managed in France. The boat should all land at one place, and an officer acquainted with the British language, with a soldier or two to keep the rabble of porters back till things were adjusted, and it was ascertained which articles were, and which were not, to be taken to the searching-house. He would also quiet the apprehensions of the passengers, by informing them how they were to proceed. But, as we found it, the whole was a mass of noise and confusion. Every

one was speaking, pushing, defending his luggage against the porters, and uncertain what to do. Nor did the gendarme, who received us on the steps, show any disposition to assist us by giving us information. He confined his speaking to merely asking for our passports.

I at length quitted the boat with above half-a-dozen of porters, one carrying my portmanteau, one my sac de nuit,—a third my great coat, and a fourth my umbrella,—while three or four more followed pestering me to give them something to carry; and, as I moved onward, I still kept a sharp eye upon my French baggage-bearers. Near the searching-house, I met a British looking man, who asked me in English if I came from the Paris hotel at Dover. This I afterwards found to be Mr. Maurice, the master of the hotel to which I was going. He sent off a young man with me, and said the baggage would be perfectly safe. I still, however, kept now and then looking behind with some apprehension. Had I then known the French honesty in these points I should have been quite at my ease.

I had long neglected my French, and I was very rusty in it. I resolved, however, to use it on every occasion. But that language sinks so many letters in pronunciation, while the natives speak this shortened dialect with such rapidity, that it is extremely difficult for a foreigner at first to follow them. In vain I said *doucement*, *doucement*, *parlez doucement*. They all hurried on as fast as ever, and I was still left in the lurch. The French pronunciation may be said to be a short-hand with respect to the spelling.

I soon found the inconvenience of not being able to understand them. It was in vain I contrived to ask a question. They seem by no means to be a quick people in conceiving your meaning. In this point I found them far inferior to our own people. I did, however, generally succeed in making them comprehend me; but, from their short-hand pronunciation, I could not understand them. I was therefore at a great loss, and, at first not a little uncomfortable.

On reaching the hotel I was left to shift for myself. I found my way to the box office, and I contrived to ascertain,

that, as I was a passenger all through, I might, if I chose, set off that evening at seven. I did choose this, and now I became anxious to recover my passport in time.

THE RIGHT HON. GEORGE PONSONBY.

Died on the 8th Aug. in Curzon street, the right honourable George Ponsonby, many years an ornament of the Irish and British Houses of Parliament; and, since the death of Mr. Fox, the ostensible leader of the old Whig party.

Mr. Ponsonby was the younger son of the right honourable John Ponsonby, speaker of the Irish House of Commons, brother of the late Earl of Besborough, by lady Elizabeth Cavendish, daughter of William, third Duke of Devonshire. Called at an early age to the bar, and possessing, for his rank, but a slender fortune, he was appointed counsel to the commissioners of the revenue, with the emoluments of which he was satisfied—spending a considerable portion of his time in rural retirement; but a change of ministry, which divested him of his place, roused him into activity, and laid the foundation of his political life.

In the same year he became a leading member in the Irish House of Commons, and at the bar. His professional practice opened the road to riches, while the necessary exertions subdued a constitutional indolence, which might otherwise have settled into habit. Thus his removal from place, at first contemplated as an evil, eventually proved a good; and put him at once in possession of healthful spirits, fame, and fortune. Always acting in concert with the party of his noble relative, the Duke of Devonshire, he was, on the change of administration in 1806, appointed *Lord Chancellor of Ireland*, which office he resigned in 1807; and, on Lord Grey's removal to the Upper House, he succeeded him as nominal leader of the opposition in the House of Commons. His time having been for the greater part previously spent in Ireland, and his mind occupied with Irish interests, this period may be considered as the commencement of his political career as a British senator.

Like the Great Lord Chatham, he died in the service of his country—being seized with a fit a few minutes after he had spoken in debate. He died on the

eighth day afterwards; his second son having arrived express from Ireland only a few minutes after his death.

Mr. Ponsonby was one of those very estimable characters who fill a private station in the most amiable and exemplary manner, and a public one with propriety and integrity. His talents were more useful than splendid; more suited to the arrangement of affairs, and the detail of business, and the tranquil investigation of truth, than capable of obtaining a command over the understanding of others, of dazzling by their brilliancy, or controlling by their powers. He was, in truth, an honest, sincere, steady man; and his eloquence was naturally adapted to the level tenor of his mind. He never aspired to the lofty splendor of a Sheridan; and was incapable of the quick conception and rapid elocution of a Fox. The ardent spirit of his own party so far ran beyond him in their attacks, that they almost forgot they fought under his colours; to whom, therefore, he was rather a *point d'appui* after the battle, than a leader in the field.

As the leader of a great political party, no man was ever more free from party spirit: he was, in feeling and principle, the very man contemplated by those who consider a systematic opposition a necessary safeguard to the constitutional rights and liberties of England. The ingenuousness of his mind, the kindness of his heart, and the placability of his manners, conciliated his opponents, and assuaged all those feelings which defeat excites; and, if his triumphs were not more numerous, it was because the candour and generosity of his mind disdained to take advantage of his adversaries, whenever he thought them right. Where that was the case, all party feeling vanished before his political integrity; and, on many critical occasions, he gave his adversaries the support of his learning and talents. Nobly disdaining all selfish views, he was here no longer the leader of a party: he showed himself the resolute, fixed, and unalterable, friend of constitutional freedom.

He was in his 63d year, having been born the 5th of March, 1755: by his wife, Lady Mary Ponsonby, sister of the late Earl of Lanesborough, who survives him, he has left one son and one daughter, who is married to the honour-

able F. Prittie, brother of Lord Dunally.

Spenser.

IN *Tod's Life of Spenser*, in which there is to be found much valuable information regarding the studies and pursuits of this great man, and the state of English literature at that period, there is a curious letter of Spenser's friend, Harvey, in which he recommends to the author of the *Faery Queen* the study of Petrarch. "Think upon Petrarche, and perhappes it will advance the wings of your imagination a degree higher—at least if any thing can be added to the loftiness of his conceits, whom gentle Mistress Rosalind once reported to have all the intelligences at commandment, and another time christened him Signor Pegaso." The gentle Mistress Rosalind, here mentioned, was a lady to whom Spenser were early attached. It shows the poetical conversations with which he and his mistress must have entertained themselves, alluding, as *Tod* says, to the pleasant days that were gone and past,—for the lady deserted Signor Pegaso, and married his rival. In July 1580, Spenser was, by the influence of the Earl of Leicester and Sir Philip Sydney, appointed secretary to Lord Grey, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. He afterwards received, on his return to England, a grant of a considerable property in the county of Cork from Queen Elizabeth. His residence, every spot around which is classical ground, is described by Smith in his *Natural and Civil History of the County of Cork*. The castle was then nearly level with the ground. It must have been a noble situation: a plain almost surrounded by mountains, with a lake in the middle; and the river Mulla so often mentioned by Spenser, running through his grounds. In this romantic retreat he was visited by the noble and injured Sir Walter Raleigh, himself an accomplished scholar and poet, under whose encouragement he committed his *Faery Queen* to the press.

CHINA

The following statistical account of this immense empire may perhaps at the present moment excite some interest:—
Extent of empire in sq. miles, 1,297,990
The same in acres, 830,719,360

Number of inhabitants, - 333,000,000
 Revenues in sterling, - 1,12,140,625

This gives 256 persons to a square mile, or 2 1-2 acres to each, which is full one-half more in proportion than the population of England.

The revenues amount to 8 1-2d. a-year each; so that as the British revenue stood in 1815, before the abolition of the income-tax, one person in England paid as much as 180 in China.

Industry in China is, nevertheless, carried to the highest degree; and there are not to be found in China either idle persons or beggars. Every small piece of ground is cultivated, and produces something useful; and all sorts of grain are planted, not sowed, by which more seed is saved than would supply all the inhabitants of Britain and Ireland.

In that country every one labours, and even rocks are covered with earth, and made to produce. The sides of mountains are cultivated, and irrigation is very general, and conducted with great art and care. Cloth and paper are made from various vegetables, which in Europe are thrown aside as useless.

In one word, they neither waste time, nor space, nor materials, and pay scarcely any taxes; nevertheless they are so poor, that is, they enjoy so few of the necessaries of life, that the law permits the stifling of new born children, when the parents have not the means of bringing them up.

This account is said to be from the best authorities, and affords abundance of materials for thinking to our speculative economists; but if any thing were wanting to complete the strange result of such a population and so much industry, it is, that the Chinese despise all other nations, but most of all commercial ones, and that they have always as much as possible insisted on having gold or silver in exchange for what they sell to strangers.

Lord Amherst and suite arrived at Canton on the 1st of January. The failure of the embassy is known to have arisen from the demand of the Chinese of the abject ceremony of prostration, which Lord Amherst resisted, not only on general principles of national dignity, but on the precedent established by Lord Macartney. The embassy, though not admitted to the emperor's presence, was, however, treated in its way back with great and indeed unexampled at-

tention, and the persons of the suite enjoyed a degree of personal freedom greater than was ever before enjoyed by any foreigners.

The last despatches from Captain Maxwell of the *Alcedo* frigate at Canton, communicate very important geographical information. It appears, that after the ships under his direction quitted the gulf of Pe-tche-lie, they stood across the gulf of Leatong, saw the great wall winding up one side of the steep mountains and descending the other, down into the gulf, and instead of meeting with the eastern coast of Corea, in the situation assigned it in the several charts, they fell in with an archipelago, consisting of at least one thousand islands, amongst which were the most commodious and magnificent harbours: and the real coast of the Korean peninsula, they found situate at least 180 miles farther to the eastward. Captain Maxwell from hence proceeded with the other ships to the Leiou-Kieou islands, where they met with an harbour equally as capacious as that of Port Mahon, in Minorca, experiencing from the poor but kind hearted inhabitants of those places the most friendly reception.

ITALY.

It is a general opinion, that the atmosphere of Italy is clearer than that of France or England, and therefore much better fitted for astronomical observations. But this opinion, in regard to the so called garden of Europe, the *sedisant* terrestrial paradise, is false.—Pond, the astronomer royal, says that it is not a country for practical astronomy, and that the climate of England is much more advantageous, and has more clear days. The prevailing wind in Italy is the south, which brings rain in winter, and fog in summer. Even Naples does not possess an *astronomical climate*. In the winter season, rains like those of the tropical regions deluge the country for ten or twelve weeks; and in summer, the air exhibits all the silvery and pearly hues known to the painter. If we look at the landscapes of the Italian school, we at once obtain a conception of the atmosphere of Italy. Florence has been celebrated for its fine climate and clear sky. Those who have made this observation, probably never heard of the proverb, "Qu'on ne comprend pas qu'on

y peut vivre en été et n'y pas mourir en hiver. Even Genoa, the climate of which is so much admired, is named the *Urinale dell' Italia*. Astronomical instruments suffer there from moisture more in a few months than in France in as many years.

Brocchi, a distinguished Italian naturalist, has discovered, in the neighbourhood of Velettri, columnar basalt, resting upon a bed of pumice, which contains bones of quadrupeds.

General Count Camillo Borgia has lately returned to Naples from Africa, after having been engaged in antiquarian researches for nearly two years in the neighbourhood of Tunis. He established such an interest with the Bey and his ministers, as to obtain an unqualified permission to examine the antiquities of that country. He caused considerable excavations in various places; especially on the site of the ancient Carthage, and at Utica; and the general result of his labours has been, that, along the coast, and in the interior, he has examined the ruins of more than 200 cities and towns, and made copies and drawings of 400 ancient inscriptions and remains, hitherto unpublished and unknown. Among the inscriptions are some which appear to be in the ancient Punic language. The most important of the public buildings which have been discovered, is a Temple at Utica, containing 80 columns of oriental granite, and a statue of the goddess Flora. He is at present employed in arranging his materials, and preparing the result of his discoveries for the press.

A Miser starved to death.—Friday the 16th, Mr. Omer, of Great Castle Street, Oxford Market, not having seen James Alexander, a man who rented the back garret in his house, for several days, broke open the door of his room, and found him quite dead. The officers searched the place, and in a remote corner found hills, &c. to the amount of £2000, which will all fall to a distant relation at Edinburgh. The deceased was by trade a journeyman carpenter, and had worked for Messrs. Nichols and Ralph, in Well Street, for near twenty years. About twelve years ago they fined him a guinea for being detected stealing the workmen's victuals from a cupboard appropriated to their use; on that occasion he would have hung

himself, but was rather unwilling to purchase a rope! About a year ago he was discharged for committing similar depredations. He never had a fire if he was to pay for it; but his business as a carpenter enabled him to get plenty of shavings. His diet consisted principally of a twopenny loaf per day, and a pint of small beer; but since his discharge from Messrs Nichols and Ralph's, he had even dispensed with the latter.—He literally starved himself to death.

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From the Gentleman's Magazine.

THE DRY ROT.

MR. URBAN, *Chatham, July 1.*

In the paper on dry-rot, which you were good enough to insert in your Magazine for May,* I have traced out what I consider to be the cause of that process. I now beg your insertion of the following plan to prevent it. As I consider all methods for curing timber already infected futile, I shall proceed to show how timber may be procured, so as to be able to resist its attacks.

I take the felling of timber at an improper season to be the predisposing cause, the presence of the water and of heat the operating and stimulating causes of the process. At that time of the year that timber is felled it is now full of the sap and peculiar juices; it is in the full vigour of vegetation; turgid with the abundance of its various juices. the vessels are distended to their utmost capacity, and the tree is less solid than at any other time of the year. It is cut down in this state; a quantity of its juices flow out, but a much larger quantity is retained in its vessels, and these are not to be expelled. Long, very long seasoning after the usual method, is requisite to deprive them of their vegetative powers, and when that is effected, the timber is neither so strong nor durable as that felled in the autumn or winter. Mr. Knight has shown that winter-felled timber is more dense than that which is cut in the spring, or early part of summer. He cut two oak poles from the same stool, the one in May, the other after leaf-fall; these were dried for six weeks by a fire; he then found that the specific gravity of the winter-felled to be 0.679, that of the spring-felled 0.609. Here, then, is a decisive proof of the superior quality of winter felled-timber.

* See *Analectic Magazine* for September 1817, p. 261.

At the end of autumn the tree has completed its vegetation; the sap and peculiar juices no longer exist in it as such, but are changed into wood and other solid matter, and in consequence are not so much disposed to decomposition as they were when in a state of fluidity; the water is nearly gone, and the wood, as if so designed by Nature, is fit for cutting, being in a state of suspended animation, which state, I suppose may be prolonged by cutting off the sources of future vivification. I have noticed Elm trees which were cut down in the spring, germinating the succeeding spring, and, on rending away part of the bark, have found the sap in circulation; had these trees been cut and converted to use, I have no doubt that instead of finding a branch, I should have seen a fungus. From the above, I draw the conclusion, that spring is an improper time to fell timber, and that its being loaded with juices disposes it to a hasty decay.

It will be objected to the plan of cutting timber in the autumn and winter, that the bark will be ruined. It has been proved that trees will continue to grow and flourish when deprived of a great part of that covering; it will be of no injurious consequence to the tree, then, to strip it of its bark at the most convenient time, and suffer the tree to remain until autumn to complete its vegetation*, taking care to envelop the trunk with hay or straw bands, so as to defend the sap vessels from the sun and wind. But, even supposing that the growth of the tree should be affected by these means, yet it will be the external zone alone that will suffer; and that is of but trifling consequence, as, in the conversion of timber for shipping especially, that part is cut away. By these means, then, timber may be procured free from sap and the peculiar juices, to which fluids the fungus owes its origin; for, upon analysis of it, I found it yielded most of the principle of which they are composed†: procure timber free from these two fluids, and fungus will be prevented.

* The practice of barking trees in the spring, and felling them in the winter, is of ancient date: it was recommended in 1687 by Dr. Plott to King James the second, and by him referred to the consideration of the Admiralty and Navy Boards.

† Analysis of Fungus.—To the decoction I added;

At the end of autumn a small portion of water will remain in the tree, and, in conveying it to the various places at which it is to be used, more will necessarily be absorbed. To expel this, and to season the timber, the logs should be first sided, or cut out into their different qualifications, and then placed in sheds constructed for that purpose, of large capacity, and with sides of swinging loover-boards; in these must be placed stoves, the funnels of which should run through the whole length of the building, and be capable of raising their atmosphere to a temperature between 90° and 100°, when some of the loover boards are canted to admit a current of air; those to windward should be canted below, and those to the leeward aloft; care must be taken that the current of air be not very rapid. By adopting this method, the water may be totally expelled in a few weeks, and the timber may then be removed to other buildings of the same construction, but without stoves; and thus timber in a short time may be rendered fit for use, well seasoned, and of greater durability and strength than that at present used.

To diminish the heat of the atmosphere on shipboard, and in buildings, is the next consideration. The method for ships that are laid up in harbour, and for buildings, is, to open channels for the free circulation of air into all parts of them. For ships in employ, let a number of conical holes be made, so that their bases shall open immediately below the lower deck (in ships of war called the gun-deck), and the summit of the cone rise as it approaches the outside, so as to make it of as great a height above the water-line as possible. To

1. Solution of nitrate of silver, precipitated bitter principle.
2. Do. Gelatine Do. Tannin.
3. Infusion of galls Do. Gluten.
4. Muriate of alumine Do. Extractive.
5. From the Spirituous tincture, water precipitated Resin.
6. Evaporated the spirituous tincture, residuum Resin.

† It is indispensable to keep timber dry at all times for its preservation, as exposing it in stacks to the rain and sun is the sure means of its destruction. I have known thousands of loads of timber to be ruined for want of the above precaution.

these holes solid cones of oak should be fitted, be wound round with oakum, and smeared with tallow, and then driven in hard. On each side of the conical hole a strong staple being fixed, and the solid cone furnished with an iron face and knob, a strong bolt passed through the staples, and over the knob, would effectually secure it in its place. In fair weather, the cones being withdrawn, and the holes being in number about twenty, equidistant fore and aft on both sides, an abundance of fresh air would be poured in through them into the lower parts of the ship. Large trunks might also be passed down the stem and stern; and a communication being opened fore and aft in the hold, that part of the ship, which is now the residence of noxious vapours and heated air, would by these means be rendered cool and wholesome; and these might be kept open at all times, being furnished with a hood to prevent the rain and sea passing down them. One of the tubes at each end of the ship should be considerably shorter than the other, for the purpose of conveying away the heated air.

Thus I presume, I have pointed out methods of obviating the causes of dry-rot.

RT. DADD.

An Academy, in some measure similar to our society for the encouragement of Arts, has been recently established at Vienna; it is endowed by the Emperor with his grand collection of Natural History, and likewise possesses an extensive chemical and philosophical laboratory, together with models and specimens of machinery, &c. The Austrians hope by its means to improve their manufactures, and to become independent of foreign industry. The design is patriotic, and we wish them success; but of this we are certain, that as foreign nations become rich by means of manufacture, so will a new class start up for the purchase of British manufactures. A country, *merely agricultural*, is never a very good customer.—[*Edin. Mag.*]

Among other projected improvements, we have seen the plan of an iron bridge of tenacity, from Holborn-hill to St. Sepulchre's-church, which it is to be regretted, was not thought of before the new streets were built.—It affords us pleasure too to observe, that the decisive success of the experiment of an iron

pavement has led to a further specimen in Spurr-street, Leicester-fields, and that there is little doubt but in a few years stone-pavements will be banished from our streets as clumsy and expensive, uneven and perishable.—Another great improvement has taken place in gas lights, in the introduction of pipes of Delft ware, which are a fifth of the expense of iron, and actually more durable. This reduction of expense will rapidly accelerate the general introduction of gas lights as well in London as in country towns. More than half London is now lighted by gas, but we have not an accurate list of provincial towns in which it has been introduced.

Miss A. M. PORTER, author of the *Recluse of Norway*, will soon publish the *Knight of Saint John*, a romance.

Miss BENDER, is preparing for the press, *Memoirs*, with a selection from the Correspondence, and other unpublished Writings, of the late Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton, authors of *Letters on Education*, *Agrippina*, &c. in two volumes, small octavo.

SIR HUMPHREY DAVY states that flame is gaseous matter heated so highly as to be luminous, and that to a degree of temperature beyond the white heat of solid bodies, as is shown by the circumstance, that air not luminous will communicate this degree of heat. When an attempt is made to pass flame through a very fine mesh of wire-gauze at the common temperature, the gauze cools each portion of the elastic matter that passes through it, so as to reduce its temperature below that degree at which it is luminous, and the diminution of temperature must be proportional to the smallness of the mesh and the mass of the metal. Sir Humphrey Davy is at Paris. M. BUSCH, the learned traveller in Lapland, is there also. M. BIOT is in Scotland, to assist in the grand trigonometrical survey, &c. and to visit the Orcades. M. MUFFLING, charged by the king of Prussia with continuing the trigonometrical survey of the French engineers, is in France, for that purpose. Colonel MUDGE, charged with a similar labour by the British government, has invited several of the *savans* of France to cross the channel, and verify his operations. The baron COCQUEBERT DE

MONTBRET, known by his immense labours on the statistics of France, is gone to the southern departments to pursue the geological researches still wanting to complete the physical history of the kingdom. M. PREVOST, of Geneva, is on his way to England and Scotland.

GERMANY.

Animal Magnetism is at present in high repute in Germany, as a remedy in the cure of diseases. Many large works, and numberless pamphlets, have been written on this subject within two or three years, and even hospitals have been established, for the reception of such patients as require the aid of magnetism.

A periodical work is publishing in Switzerland, by a society of veterinary practitioners, under the title, "Archives of Veterinary Medicine." Four numbers have already appeared.

There is publishing in Hanover, by Crome, a Manual of Natural History for Agriculturists. It promises to be a very popular and useful work.

Henriette Schubart has lately published, at Altenburg, a translation of Walter Scott's Scottish ballads and songs.

There has lately appeared at Frankfurt, by Dr Diels, a systematic work on the principal species, kinds, and varieties, of fruits cultivated in Germany.

A little volume, entitled, *Plurality of Worlds; or some remarks, Philosophical and Critical, in a Series of Letters, occasioned by Discourses on Christianity, viewed in connexion with the Modern Astronomy*, as published by the Rev. Dr Chalmers, is in the press.

Preparing for publication, in two large 8vo volumes, illustrated with maps, "*An Introduction to the critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures*," by Mr. Horne, sub-librarian of the Surrey Institution. This Work, on which the author has been engaged for many years, will be divided into three parts. Part I. will contain a view of the Geography of the Holy Land, and of the Political, Religious, Moral, and Civil, State of the Jews, illustrating the principal Events recorded in the Scriptures. Part II. will treat on the various subsidiary means for ascertaining the sense of the Scripture—Figurative Language—The reconciling of the apparent contradictions of Scrip-

ture—Quotations from the Old Testament in the New, with New tables of all the Quotations—Applications of the Principles of Scripture—Interpretation to the Historical, Prophetical, Doctrinal, and Moral Parts of the Bible. Part III. will be appropriated to the Analysis of the Scriptures, comprising an account of Canon of the Old and New Testaments, together with Critical Prefaces and Synopes to each Book. A copious Appendix will be subjoined, containing an account of the principal MSS. and Editions of the Old and New Testaments—of various Readings, with a digest of the chief Rules for weighing and applying them—Rules for the better understanding of Hebraisms—Lists of Commentators, and Biblical Critics of eminence, with Bibliographical and Critical Notices of each, extracted from authentic sources; together with Chronological and other Tables, necessary to facilitate the study of the Bible. It is a peculiar feature of this Work, that references are made throughout to the most approved writers on every topic, in order to assist further researches, and thus render the volume a useful Manual to the Biblical Student and to Divines.

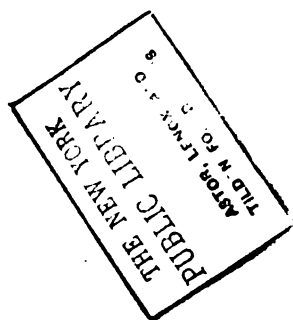
Mr Accum has in the press, *Chemical Amusements*, comprising a series of curious and instructive Experiments in Chemistry, which are easily performed, and unattended with danger.

An Account of the Origin, Progress, and Actual State of the War carried on between Spain and Spanish America, by a South American, is nearly ready for publication.

A general history of the quadrupeds of America, illustrated by coloured plates engraved from original drawings, is preparing for publication. It will correspond in form with the late Alexander Wilson's splendid illustrations of American Ornithology.

The ancient library of Heidelberg has been restored in great splendor, and now contains some of the most curious manuscripts in Europe.

ERRATA.—Page 355, Art. II, for "Officer of the United States' army," read, Officer of the United States' Navy.





Sully Pinx.

Long sc.

PUBLISHED BY J. WEBSTER

PATRICK HENRY.

Entered according to Act of Congress the 22^d day of Sept. 1807 by James Webster of the State of Pennsylvania

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PATRICK HENRY.

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THE
ANALECTIC MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1817.

ART. I.—*Sketches of the Life and Character of Patrick Henry, by William Wirt, of Richmond, Virginia. Philadelphia; published by James Webster: William Brown, printer.—pp. 439.*

IT is an obvious remark, that a biographer, to do justice to the person of whom he writes, should partake of his spirit, and resemble him in character. According to this rule, Mr. Wirt is the very man who ought to have given the world a sketch of that great 'orator of nature,' Patrick Henry; for Mr. Wirt is unquestionably an eloquent orator of the first class. He is capable of appreciating the perspicuity, simplicity, pathos and energy of that kind of speaking, which arrests and retains attention, carries home conviction, and renders the feelings of an audience obedient to the eye, the tone, and the wish of the speaker: he is capable too, of rendering the public estimation of the statesman, who, in Virginia, was second only to the immortal Washington, precisely what he would wish. The work before us does honour to the head and heart of the author: it does honour to the memory of the justly celebrated Henry; and to the state which may well be proud to claim the first as her adopted son, and the last as the father of her freemen. We have read the volume with critical attention, and can discover but a few defects or inaccuracies, which have not been corrected by the author himself. The few which have occurred we shall state, and doubt not that they will receive due attention, when Mr. Wirt shall prepare a second edition of his estimable sketches for the press. Like most American books this wants an index, and a table of contents.

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wheel, that sadly needs the application of tar and tallow, in order that it may *glow from its own action*. Now, that it should roll like a river, and like a wheel at the same time; and that it should both take fire by friction, and wash away the sediment of a slimy nature which had covered the clown, seems to our apprehension impossible. Of creating such confusion of metaphors Mr. Wirt is rarely guilty; but he is worth criticism, and, therefore, we shall not spare him.

On the 28th page, we have the expression, 'neither with a feeble or hesitating hand.' *Neither* requires its correlative *nor*. A similar error is committed, when the writer says, (p. 403,) 'he was certainly neither proud, *or* hard-hearted, *or* penurious:' and in the statement, that 'neither his ardour in the public cause, *or* his strong natural sense, can with any colour of justice be disputed.' (p. 177.) The new words, *indebtment* and *replacement*, (p. 52,) we must charge to Mr. Jefferson, whose language he quotes; and, *theretofore*, (p. 70,) to judge Winston.—Section VI, commences thus; 'I cannot learn that Mr. Henry distinguished himself peculiarly, at this session of Congress;' and we are left to ascertain of what session he writes, in any way we can.—A note, on the 227th page, should have been incorporated with the text, so as to read thus; "During the winter session of this year, (1780) general Gates entered the city of Richmond from his southern campaign, where he had most wofully fulfilled general Lee's prediction, 'that his *northern laurels* would be turned into *southern willows*.'"—Mr. Wirt informs us once or twice needlessly, (for he is sufficiently explicit in his first narration of the fact,) that Patrick Henry excelled all other persons, and even himself, while engaged about other concerns, in pleading criminal causes. It was enough to hear once that these were his forte.—Our biographer seems too, unable to drop a beautiful allusion to a 'river meandering through a flowery mead, but which never overflowed its banks;' and 'the mountain torrent,' a cataract, thunder and lightning. (p. 50 and 250.) The comparison between the effect produced on the mind by Henry's eloquence, and that which results from the perception of the sublime Niagara, or of a conflict in the heavens, is exquisitely fine; but one may hear too much, even of a good thing.

'It seems to have been a matter of concert among the colonial governors,' he says, (p. 131,) 'if indeed the policy was not dictated by the British court, to disarm the people of all the colonies at one and the same time, and thus incapacitate them for united resistance.' In other places, he seems to have considered all the colonial governors as being of the same description of English myrmidons. There was, however, one honourable exception. His excellency, Jonathan Trumbull, LL.D. the father of the late governor Trumbull, and of colonel John Trumbull, the best painter of a battle in the world, was elected annually to the chief magistracy of the state of Connecticut, from the year 1769, to that of

his death, in August 1785; and during the whole of this time was an undaunted friend of our American liberties. No other governor of an American colony was annually elected by the people; and no other, we believe, was able to hold his chair of state during the storms of the revolution. Instead of *disarming*, he armed the citizens of Connecticut; and all the physical force of that state was, from the commencement of the struggle for independence, by him organized for its achievement. Had Mr. Wirt known this historical fact, he would have taken notice of it, so far as to have excepted Trumbull from the infamous combination of colonial governors to enslave their fellow citizens.

Of the selection of materials for this work, we have only to say, that had Mr. Wirt given us less political history, and more of Henry's familiar and friendly letters, we should have been gratified; and the biography of the first republican governor of Virginia would have been more generally interesting. We must censure Mr. Wirt for calling his own animating pages 'poor and wretched descriptions' of Henry's eloquence; and we beg leave to doubt whether it was not attributing to any one man too much, to assert that he 'put the revolution into motion, and bore it upon his shoulders, as Atlas is said to do the heavens.' (p. 314, 315.) These faults are few; and little else would professed critics find in this respectable volume to deserve animadversion.

Should we set ourselves to commend the eloquent passages of the work, it would be requisite to extract half of it. Instead of doing this, or of attempting to write a better life of Henry ourselves, as Messrs. Gifford and Jeffrey would do, under pretence of *reviewing* the work, we shall trace the course of the history before us, and avail ourselves of Mr. Wirt's industry and candour to present our readers with a faithful description of the man whose likeness enhances the value of our present number.

Patrick Henry was born at Studley, in the county of Hanover, and state of Virginia, on the 29th of May, 1736. He descended from respectable Scotch ancestry, in the paternal line; and his mother was a native of the county in which he was born. On the maternal side, at least, he seems to have descended from a rhetorical race.

"Her brother William, the father of the present judge Winston, is said to have been highly endowed with that peculiar cast of eloquence, for which Mr. Henry became, afterwards so justly celebrated. Of this gentleman I have an anecdote from a correspondent,* which I shall give in his own words. 'I have often heard my father, who was intimately acquainted with this William Winston, say, that he was the greatest orator whom he ever heard, Patrick Henry excepted; that during the last French and Indian war, and soon after Braddock's defeat, when the militia were marched to the frontiers of Virginia, against the enemy, this William Winston was the lieutenant of a company; that the men, who were indifferently clothed, without tents, and exposed to

* Mr. Pope.

the rigour and inclemency of the weather, discovered great aversion to the service, and were anxious and even clamorous to return to their families; when this William Winston, mounting a stump, (the common *rostrum*, you know, of the field orator of Virginia,) addressed them with such keenness of invective, and declaimed with such force of eloquence, on liberty and patriotism, that when he concluded, the general cry was, 'let us march on; lead us against the enemy;' and they were now willing, nay anxious to encounter all those difficulties and dangers, which, but a few moments before, had almost produced a mutiny.'" P. 3.

In childhood and youth Patrick Henry, whose name renders titles superfluous, gave no presages of his future greatness. He learned to read and write, reluctantly; 'made some small progress in arithmetic;' 'acquired a superficial knowledge of the Latin language;' and 'made a considerable proficiency in the mathematics, the only branch of education for which he discovered, in his youth, the slightest predilection.' The whole soul of his youth was bound up in the sports of the field. His idleness was absolutely incurable: and, of course, he proved a truant lad, who could sit all day on a bridge, waiting for a good bite, or even, 'one glorious nibble.' The unhappy effects of this idleness were lasting as his life; and the biographer very properly cautions his youthful readers against following this bad example.

"His propensity to observe and comment upon the human character, was, so far as I can learn, the only circumstance, which distinguished him, advantageously, from his youthful companions. This propensity seems to have been born with him, and to have exerted itself, instinctively, the moment that a new subject was presented to his view. Its action was incessant, and it became, at length, almost the only intellectual exercise in which he seemed to take delight. To this cause may be traced that consummate knowledge of the human heart which he finally attained, and which enabled him, when he came upon the public stage, to touch the springs of passion with a master-hand, and to control the resolutions and decisions of his hearers, with a power, almost more than mortal.

"From what has been already stated, it will be seen, how little education had to do with the formation of this great man's mind. He was, indeed, a mere child of nature, and nature seems to have been too proud and too jealous of her work, to permit it to be touched by the hand of art. She gave him Shakespeare's genius, and bade him, like Shakespeare, to depend on that alone. Let not the youthful reader, however, deduce, from the example of Mr. Henry, an argument in favour of indolence and the contempt of study. Let him remember that the powers which surmounted the disadvantage of those early habits, were such as very rarely appear upon this earth. Let him remember, too, how long the genius, even of Mr. Henry, was kept down and hidden from the public view, by the sorcery of those pernicious habits; through what years of poverty and wretchedness they doomed him to struggle; and, let him remember, that at length, when in the zenith of his glory, Mr. Henry himself, had frequent occasions to deplore the consequences of his early neglect of literature, and to bewail 'the ghosts of his departed hours.'" P. 6, 7.

At the age of fifteen years, young Henry was placed behind the counter of a merchant in the country; and at sixteen his father set him up in trade, in partnership with his brother William. Through laziness, the love of music, the charms of the chase, and a readiness to *trust every one*, the firm was soon reduced to bankruptcy. The only advantage which resulted from his short continuance in mercantile business was an opportunity to study human characters.

"He found another relief, too, in the frequent opportunities now afforded him of pursuing his favourite study of the human character. The character of every customer underwent this scrutiny; and that, not with reference either to the integrity or solvency of the individual, in which one would suppose that Mr. Henry would feel himself most interested; but in relation to the structure of his mind, the general cast of his opinions, the motives and principles which influenced his actions, and what may be called the philosophy of character. In pursuing these investigations, he is said to have resorted to arts, apparently so far above his years, and which look so much like an after-thought, resulting from his future eminence, that I should hesitate to make the statement, were it not attested by so many witnesses, and by some who cannot be suspected of the capacity for having fabricated the fact. Their account of it, then, is this; that whenever a company of his customers met in the store, (which frequently happened on the last day of the week) and were, themselves, sufficiently gay and animated to talk and act as nature prompted, without concealment, without reserve, he would take no part in their discussions, but listen with a silence as deep and attentive, as if under the influence of some potent charm. If, on the contrary, they were dull and silent, he would, without betraying his drift, task himself to set them in motion, and excite them to remark, collision, and exclamation. He was peculiarly delighted with comparing their characters, and ascertaining how they would, severally, act, in given situations. With this view he would state an hypothetic case, and call for their opinions, one by one, as to the conduct which would be proper in it. If they differed he would demand their reasons, and enjoy highly, the debates in which he would thus involve them. By multiplying and varying those imaginary cases at pleasure, he ascertained the general course of human opinion, and formed, for himself, as it were, a graduated scale of the motives and conduct which are natural to man. Sometimes he would entertain them with stories, gathered from his reading, or, as was more frequently the case, drawn from his own fancy, composed of heterogeneous circumstances, calculated to excite, by turns, pity, terror, resentment, indignation, contempt; pausing, in the turns of his narrative, to observe the effect; to watch the different modes in which the passions expressed themselves, and learn the language of emotion from those children of nature." P. 9, 10.

This was, in the judgment of Mr. Wirt, the school in which Mr. Henry was prepared for his future life.

"For those continual efforts to render himself intelligible to his plain and unlettered hearers, on subjects entirely new to them, taught him that clear and simple style which forms the best vehicle of thought to a popular assembly; while his attempts to interest and affect them, in order that he might hear from them the echo of nature's voice, instructed

him in those topics of persuasion by which men were the most certainly to be moved, and in the kind of imagery and structure of language, which were the best fitted to strike and agitate their hearts. These constituted his excellencies as an orator; and never was there a man, in any age, who possessed, in a more eminent degree, the lucid and nervous style of argument, the command of the most beautiful and striking imagery, or that language of passion which burns from soul to soul." P. 10.

This last passage we have introduced, not more for the purpose of exhibiting Mr. Henry, than with the intention of giving a specimen of his biographer's eloquence.

At eighteen Mr. Henry married the daughter of an honest farmer, and undertook to cultivate a few acres for himself. His only delights, at this time, were those 'which flow from the endearing relations of conjugal life.' His 'want of agricultural skill, and his unconquerable aversion to every species of systematic labour,' terminated his career as a planter in the short space of two years. Again he had recourse to merchandise, and again failed in business. 'Every atom of his property was now gone, his friends were unable to assist him any further; he had tried every means of support, of which he thought himself capable, and every one had failed; ruin was behind him; poverty, debt, want, and famine before; and as if his cup of misery were not already full enough, here were a suffering wife and children to make it overflow.' Still he had a cheerful temper, and 'his passion was music, dancing, and pleasantry.' About this time he became fond of geography and 'historical works generally.' 'Livy was his favourite;' and Livy, in some measure awakened the dormant powers of his genius. 'As a last effort, he determined, of his own accord, to make a trial of the law.' This profession, he seems to have viewed in the same light in which one Wheeler did divinity, who used to say, while in college, that after he graduated, he would, if he could, become a lawyer, and sell both justice and injustice to his clients: if he could not plead law, he would turn doctor, and sell the elixir of life and death, for four-and-sixpence per bottle: but if all things else failed, he would turn a country parson, with pewter knee-buckles, and read his father's old sermons to the people. Indeed, Mr. Henry seems to have disliked the professional business of an attorney at law, as much as Mr. Wirt must, if we may judge of him, from what he says about 'the drudgery' of his office. 'Mr. Henry himself seems to have hoped for nothing more from the profession than a scanty subsistence for himself and his family, and his preparation was suited to these humble expectations; for to the study of a profession, which is said to require the lucubrations of twenty years; Mr. Henry devoted not more than six weeks.' On examination, he was licensed, rather through courtesy, and some expectation that he would study, than from any conviction which his examiners had of his present competence. At the age of four and twenty he was admitted to the bar; and for three years occupied 'the back ground,' during

which period 'the wants and distresses of his family were extreme;' and he performed the duty of an assistant to his father-in-law in a tavern. His introduction to celebrity his biographer has recounted, in such an enchanting manner, as to excite a doubt whether his enthusiasm has not transformed the historian into a Marmontel, and his intended portrait into a fairy picture. That Mr. Henry was a *natural orator*, which is an orator of the best kind; and one of the very best of this superlative genus, we must believe; but that nothing which comes from the winged pen of Wirt is emblazoned truth, we can only *imagine*; especially on such a subject as this, which is more congenial to his ignited emotions than any other. We quote the almost incredible account.

"About the time of Mr. Henry's coming to the bar, a controversy arose in Virginia, which gradually produced a very strong excitement, and called to it, at length, the attention of the whole state.

"This was the famous controversy between the clergy on the one hand, and the legislature and people of the colony on the other, touching the stipend claimed by the former; and as this was the occasion on which Mr. Henry's genius first broke forth, those who take an interest in his life, will not be displeased by a particular account of the nature and grounds of the dispute. It will be borne in mind, that the church of England was at this period, the established church of Virginia; and, by an act of assembly passed so far back as the year 1696, each minister of a parish had been provided with an annual stipend of sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco. This act was re-enacted with amendments, in 1748, and in this form, had received the royal assent. The price of tobacco had long remained stationary at two pence in the pound, or sixteen shillings and eight pence per hundred. According to the provision of the law, the clergy had the right to demand, and were in the practice of receiving payment of their stipend, in the specific tobacco; unless they chose, for convenience, to commute it for money at the market price. In the year 1755, however, the crop of tobacco, having fallen short, the legislature passed "an act to enable the inhabitants of this colony, to discharge their tobacco debts in money for the present year:" by the provisions of which "all persons from whom any tobacco was due, were authorized to pay the same either in tobacco, or in money, *after the rate of sixteen shillings and eight pence per hundred, at the option of the debtor.*" This act was to continue in force for ten months and no longer, and did not contain the usual clause of suspension, *until it should receive the royal assent.* Whether the scarcity of tobacco was so general and so notorious, as to render this act a measure of obvious humanity and necessity, or whether the clergy were satisfied by its generality, since it embraced sheriffs, clerks, attornies, and all other tobacco creditors, as well as themselves, or whether they acquiesced in it as a temporary expedient, which they supposed not likely to be repeated, it is certain that no objection was made to the law at that time. They could not indeed, have helped observing the benefits which the rich planters derived from the act; for they were receiving from fifty to sixty shillings per hundred for their tobacco, while they paid off their debts, due in that article, at the old price of sixteen shillings and eight pence. Nothing, however, was then said in defence either of the royal prerogative, or of the rights of the clergy, but the law was permitted to go peaceably

through its ten months operation. The great tobacco planters had not forgotten the fruits of this act, when, in the year 1758, upon a surmise that another short crop was likely to occur, the provisions of the act of 1755 were re-enacted, and the new law, like the former, contained no suspending clause. The crop, as had been anticipated, did fall short, and the price of tobacco rose immediately from sixteen and eight pence to fifty shillings per hundred. The clergy now took the alarm, and the act was assailed by an indignant, sarcastic, and vigorous pamphlet, entitled "The Two-Penny Act," from the pen of the Rev. John Camm, the rector of York-Hampton parish, and the Episcopal commissary for the colony.* He was answered by two pamphlets, written, the one by col. Richard Bland, and the other by col. Landon Carter, in both which the commissary was very roughly handled. He replied, in a still severer pamphlet, under the ludicrous title of "The Colonels Dis-mounted." The colonels rejoined; and this war of pamphlets, in which, with some sound argument, there was a great deal of what Dryden has called "the horse play of railletry," was kept up, until the whole colony, which had at first looked on for amusement, kindled seriously in the contest from motives of interest. Such was the excitement produced by the discussion, and at length so strong the current against the clergy, that the printers found it expedient to shut their presses against them in this colony, and Mr. Camm had at last to resort to Maryland for publication. These pamphlets are still extant; and it seems impossible to deny, at this day, that the clergy had much the best of the argument. The king in his council, took up the subject, denounced the act of 1758 as an usurpation, and declared it utterly null and void. Thus supported, the clergy resolved to bring the question to a judicial test; and suits were accordingly brought by them, in the various county courts of the colony, to recover their stipends in the specific tobacco. They selected the county of Hanover as the place of the first experiment; and this was made in a suit instituted by the Rev. James Maury,† against the collector of that county and his sureties. The record of this suit is now before me. The declaration is founded on the act of 1748 which gives the tobacco; the defendants pleaded specially the act of 1758, which authorizes the commutation into money, at sixteen and eight pence: to this plea the plaintiff demurred; assigning for causes of demurrer, first, that the act of 1758, not having received the royal assent, had not the force of a law; and, secondly, that the king, in council, had declared that act null and void. The case stood for argument on the demurrer to the November term, 1763, and was argued by Mr. Lyons for the plaintiff, and Mr. John Lewis for the defendants; when the court, very much to the credit of their candour and firmness, breasted the popular current by sustaining the demurrer. Thus far the clergy sailed before the wind, and concluded, with good reason, that their triumph was com-

* The governor of Virginia represented the king; the council the house of lords; and the Episcopal commissary (a member of the council) represented the spiritual part of that house; the house of burgesses, was, of course, the house of commons.

† Mr. Burk (vol. 3d. page 363) makes the Rev. Patrick Henry the plaintiff in this case; in this he is corrected by the records of the county. Mr. Burk, also, sets down "The Two-Penny Act" to the speculations of a man by the name of Dickinson; in this he is confuted by the act itself; the preamble expressly founding it, on the shortness of the crop.

plete: for the act of 1758 having been declared void by the judgment on the demurrer, that of 1748 was left in full force, and became, in law, the only standard for the finding of the jury. Mr. Lewis was so thoroughly convinced of this, that he retired from the cause; informing his clients that it had been, in effect decided against them, and that there remained nothing more for him to do. In this desperate situation, they applied to Patrick Henry, and he undertook to argue it for them before the jury, at the ensuing term. Accordingly, on the first day of the following December, he attended the court, and, on his arrival, found in the court-yard, such a concourse, as would have appalled any other man in his situation. They were not the people of the county merely, who were there, but visitors from all the counties, to a considerable distance around. The decision upon the demurrer, had produced a violent ferment amongst the people, and equal exultation on the part of the clergy; who attended the court in a large body, either to look down upon opposition, or to enjoy the final triumph of this hard fought contest, which they now considered as perfectly secure. Among many other clergymen, who attended on this occasion, came the reverend Patrick Henry, who was the plaintiff in another cause of the same nature, then depending in court. When Mr. Henry saw his uncle approach, he walked up to his carriage, accompanied by colonel Meredith, and expressed his regret at seeing him there. "Why so?" inquired the uncle. "Because, sir," said Mr. Henry, "you know that I have never yet spoken in public, and I fear that I shall be too much overawed by your presence to be able to do my duty to my clients; besides, sir, I shall be obliged to say some *hard things* of the clergy, and I am very unwilling to give pain to your feelings." His uncle reproved him for having engaged in the cause: which Mr. Henry excused by saying, that the clergy had not thought him worthy of being retained on their side, and he knew of no moral principle by which he was bound to refuse a fee from their adversaries; besides, he confessed, that in this controversy, both his heart and judgment, as well as his professional duty, were on the side of the people; he then requested that his uncle would do him the favour to leave the ground. "Why, Patrick," said the old gentleman with a good-natured smile, "as to *your* saying hard things of the clergy, I advise you to let that alone—take any word for it, you will do yourself more harm than you will them; and as to my leaving the ground, I fear, my boy, that my presence could neither do you harm or good, in such a cause. However, since you seem to think otherwise, and desire it of me, so earnestly, you shall be gratified." Whereupon, he entered his carriage again, and returned home.

"Soon after the opening of the court, the cause was called. It stood on a writ of inquiry of damages, no plea having been entered by the defendants since the judgment on the demurrer. The array before Mr. Henry's eyes was now most fearful. On the bench sat more than twenty clergymen, the most learned men in the colony, and the most capable, as well as the severest critics before whom it was possible for him to have made his *debut*. The court-house was crowded with an overwhelming multitude, and surrounded with an immense and anxious throng; who not finding room to enter, were endeavouring to listen without, in the deepest attention. But there was something still more awfully disconcerting than all this; for in the chair of the presiding ma-

gistrate, sat no other person, than his own father. Mr. Lyons opened the cause very briefly: in the way of argument he did nothing more than explain to the jury, that the decision upon the demurrer had put the act of 1750 entirely out of the way, and left the law of 1748 as the only standard of their damages; he then concluded with a highly wrought eulogium on the benevolence of the clergy. And, now, came on the first trial of Patrick Henry's strength. No one had ever heard him speak, and curiosity was on tiptoe. He rose very awkwardly, and faltered much in his exordium. The people hung their heads at so unpromising a commencement; the clergy were observed to exchange sly looks with each other; and his father is described as having almost sunk with confusion, from his seat. But these feelings were of short duration, and soon gave place to others, of a very different character. For, now, were those wonderful faculties which he possessed, for the first time developed; and now, was first witnessed that mysterious and almost supernatural transformation of appearance, which the fire of his own eloquence never failed to work in him. For as his mind rolled along, and began to glow from its own action, all the *exuvie* of the clown, seemed to shed themselves, spontaneously. His attitude, by degrees, became erect and lofty. The spirit of his genius awakened all his features. His countenance shone with a nobleness and grandeur which it had never before exhibited. There was a lightning in his eyes which seemed to rive the spectator. His action became graceful, bold, and commanding; and in the tones of his voice, but more especially in his emphasis, there was a peculiar charm, a magic, of which any one who ever heard him, will speak as soon as he is named, but of which no one can give any adequate description. They can only say that it struck upon the ear and upon the heart, *in a manner which language cannot tell*. Add to all these, his wonder-working fancy, and the peculiar phraseology in which he clothed its images; for he painted to the heart with a force that almost petrified it. In the language of those who heard him on this occasion, "he made their blood run cold, and their hair to rise on end."

"It will not be difficult for any one, who ever heard this most extraordinary man, to believe the whole account of this transaction which is given by his surviving hearers; and from their account, the court-house of Hanover county must have exhibited on this occasion, a scene as picturesque, as has been ever witnessed in real life. They say, that the people, whose countenances had fallen as he arose, had heard but a very few sentences before they began to look up; then to look at each other with surprise, as if doubting the evidence of their own senses; then, attracted by some strong gesture, struck by some majestic attitude, fascinated by the spell of his eye, the charm of his emphasis, and the varied and commanding expression of his countenance, they could look away no more. In less than twenty minutes, they might be seen in every part of the house, on every bench, in every window, stooping forward from their stands, in death-like silence; their features fixed in amazement and awe; all their senses listening and rivetted upon the speaker, as if to catch the last strain of some heavenly visitant. The shockery of the clergy was soon turned into alarm; their triumph into confusion and despair; and at one burst of his rapid and overwhelming invective, they fled from the bench in precipitation and terror. As for

the father, such was his surprise, such his amazement, such his rapture, that, forgetting where he was, and the character which he was filling, tears of ecstasy streamed down his cheeks, without the power or inclination to repress them.

"The jury seem to have been so completely bewildered, that they lost sight not only of the act of 1744, but that of 1758 also; for thoughtless even of the admitted right of the plaintiff, they had scarcely left the bar when they returned with a verdict of *one penny damages*. A motion was made for a new trial; but the court too, had now lost the equipoise of their judgment, and overruled the motion by an unanimous vote. The verdict and judgment overruling the motion, were followed by redoubled acclamation, from within and without the house. The people, who had with difficulty kept their hands off their champion, from the moment of closing his harangue, no sooner saw the fate of the cause finally sealed, than they seized him at the bar, and in spite of his own exertions, and the continued cry of "order" from the sheriffs and the court, they bore him out of the court-house, and raising him on their shoulders, carried him about the yard, in a kind of electioneering triumph.

"Oh! what a scene was this for a father's heart! so sudden, so unlooked for; so delightfully overwhelming! At the time, he was not able to give utterance to any sentiment; but a few days after, when speaking of it to Mr. Winston,* he said, with the most engaging modesty, and with a tremor of voice, which showed how much more he felt than he expressed; "Patrick spoke in this cause, near an hour! and in a manner, that surprised me! and showed himself well informed on a subject, of which I did not think he had any knowledge!"

"I have tried much to procure a sketch of this celebrated speech. But those of Mr. Henry's hearers who survive, seem to have been bereft of their senses. They can only tell you in general, that they were taken captive; and so delighted with their captivity, that they followed implicitly, whithersoever he led them. That, at his bidding, their tears flowed from pity, and their cheeks flushed with indignation. That when it was over, they felt as if they had just awaked from some ecstatic dream, of which they were unable to recall or connect the particulars. It was such a speech as they believe had never before fallen from the lips of man; and to this day, the old people of that county cannot conceive that a higher compliment can be paid to a speaker, than to say of him, in their own homely phrase, '*he is almost equal to Patrick, when he plead against the parsons.*'" P. 19—28.

From this successful opposition to the *parson's cause*, Mr. Henry acquired a taste for professional fame; and was introduced, at once, into extensive practice. But 'no love of distinction, no necessity however severe, were strong enough to bind him down to a regular course of reading. He could not brook the confinement.' 'Hence he was never profound in the learning of the law. On a question merely legal, his inferiors, in point of talents, frequently embarrassed and foiled him; and it required all the resources of his extraordinary mind, to support the distinction which he had now gained.' In 1764, he 'pursued his favourite amuse-

* The present judge Winston.

ment of hunting with increased ardour; and has been known to hunt deer, frequently for several days together, carrying his provisions with him, and at night encamping in the woods.*

"After the hunt was over, he would go from the ground to Louisa court, clad in a coarse cloth coat stained with all the trophies of the chase, greasy leather breeches ornamented in the same way, leggings for boots, and a pair of saddle-bags on his arm. Thus accoutred, he would enter the court house, take up the first of his causes that chanced to be called; and if there was any scope for his peculiar talent, throw his adversary into the back ground, and astonish both court and jury by the powerful effusions of his natural eloquence." P. 38.

In the same year he was introduced to the gay and fashionable circle at Williamsburg, then the seat of government for the state, that he might be counsel in case of a contested election: but he made no preparation for pleading; and, as we might naturally suppose, none for appearing in a suitable costume. 'He moved awkwardly about, in his coarse and threadbare dress;' and while some thought him a prodigy, others concluded him to be an idiot: nevertheless, before the committee of elections he delivered an argument which judge Tyler, judge Winston, and others, pronounced the best they ever heard. In the same year, it is asserted on the authority of Mr. Jefferson, that Mr. Henry gave the first impulse to the ball of the revolution. He originated the spirit of the revolution in Virginia, unquestionably; and possessed a dauntless soul, exactly suited to the important work he was destined to perform.

To show his hero in the proper light, Mr. Wirt has delineated his cotemporaries; and particularly those who were celebrated for fine speaking. He speaks of John Robinson, Peyton Randolph, Richard Bland, Edward Pendleton, George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, and then of Patrick Henry, in such strains of eulogy, that we were ready to exclaim, never were seven such luminaries collected in one constellation before! Upon mature reflection, however, we became persuaded that some allowance must be made for the high colouring of Mr. Wirt, who makes his portraits as beautiful as Mr. Sully would the most ugly maiden lady that should sit before him. Of Mr. Lee he says,

"The note of his voice was deeper and more melodious than that of Mr. Pendleton. It was the canorous voice* of Cicero. He had lost the use of one of his hands, which he kept constantly covered with a black silk bandage neatly fitted to the palm of his hand, but leaving his thumb free; yet, notwithstanding this disadvantage, his gesture was so graceful and so highly finished, that it was said he had acquired it by practising before a mirror.† Such was his promptitude, that he required no preparation for debate. He was ready for any subject, as soon as it was announced; and his speech was so copious, so rich, so mellifluous, set off with such bewitching cadence of voice, and such capti-

* *Vox canora*, see the *Drutus*, *passim*.

† Edmund Randolph.

vating grace of action, that, while you listened to him, you desired to hear nothing superior, and indeed thought him perfect. He had a quick sensibility and a fervid imagination, which Mr. Pendleton wanted. Hence his orations were warmer and more delightfully interesting; yet still, to him those keys were not consigned, which could unlock the sources either of the strong or tender passions. His defect was, that he was too smooth and too sweet. His style bore a striking resemblance to that of Herodotus, as described by the Roman orator: 'he flowed on, like a quiet and placid river, without a ripple.*' He flowed, too, through banks covered with all the fresh verdure and variegated bloom of the spring; but his course was too subdued, and too beautifully regular. A cataract, like that of Niagara, crowned with overhanging rocks and mountains, in all the rude and awful grandeur of nature, would have brought him nearer to the standard of Homer and of Henry." P. 90.

By his first speech in the house of burgesses, in 1765, Mr. Henry defeated Mr. Robinson in a favourite measure, and prevented the establishment of a loan office, for the relief of the dissipated and extravagant young nobility of the colony. It was during this same session of the legislature of Virginia, in 1765, that Mr. Henry introduced his 'celebrated resolutions,' against the 'stamp act,' which proved the germ of our glorious revolution in that commonwealth.

"After his death, there was found among his papers one sealed, and thus endorsed: 'Inclosed are the resolutions of the Virginia assembly in 1765, concerning the stamp act. Let my executors open this paper.' Within was found the following copy of the resolutions, in Mr. Henry's hand-writing.

'Resolved, That the first adventurers and settlers of this, his majesty's colony and dominion, brought with them, and transmitted to their posterity, and all other his majesty's subjects, since inhabiting in this, his majesty's said colony, all the privileges, franchises, and immunities, that have at any time been held, enjoyed, and possessed, by the people of Great Britain.

'Resolved, That by two royal charters, granted by king James the first, the colonists, aforesaid, are declared entitled to all the privileges, liberties, and immunities, of denizens and natural born subjects, to all intents and purposes, as if they had been abiding and born within the realm of England.

'Resolved, That the taxation of the people by themselves, or by persons chosen by themselves to represent them, who can only know what taxes the people are able to bear, and the easiest mode of raising them, and are equally affected by such taxes themselves, is the distinguishing characteristic of British freedom, and without which the ancient constitution cannot subsist.

'Resolved, That his majesty's liege people of this most ancient colony, have uninterruptedly enjoyed the right of being thus governed by their own assembly in the article of their taxes and internal police, and that the same hath never been forfeited, or any other way given up, but hath been constantly recognized by the king and people of Great Britain.

* *Sine ullis salebris, quasi sedatus amnis, fluit.* Orat. XII, 39.

'Resolved, therefore, That the general assembly of this colony have the sole right and power to lay taxes and impositions upon the inhabitants of this colony; and that every attempt to vest such power in any person or persons whatsoever, other than the general assembly aforesaid, has a manifest tendency to destroy British as well as American freedom.'

"On the back of the paper containing those resolutions, is the following endorsement, which is also in the hand-writing of Mr. Henry himself. 'The within resolutions passed the house of burgesses in May, 1765. They formed the first opposition to the stamp act, and the scheme of taxing America by the British parliament. All the colonies, either through fear, or want of opportunity to form an opposition, or from influence of some kind or other, had remained silent. I had been for the first time elected a burgess, a few days before, was young, inexperienced, unacquainted with the forms of the house, and the members that composed it. Finding the men of weight averse to opposition, and the commencement of the tax at hand, and that no person was likely to step forth, I determined to venture, and alone, unadvised, and unassisted; on a blank leaf of an old law book* wrote the within. Upon offering them to the house, violent debates ensued. Many threats were uttered, and much abuse cast on me, by the party for submission. After a long and warm contest, the resolutions passed by a very small majority, perhaps of one or two only. The alarm spread throughout America with astonishing quickness, and the ministerial party were overwhelmed. The great point of resistance to British taxation was universally established in the colonies. This brought on the war, which finally separated the two countries, and gave independence to ours. Whether this will prove a blessing or a curse, will depend upon the use our people make of the blessings which a gracious God hath bestowed on us. If they are wise, they will be great and happy. If they are of a contrary character, they will be miserable.—Righteousness alone can exalt them as a nation.

'Reader! whoever thou art, remember this; and in thy sphere, practise virtue thyself, and encourage it in others.—P. HENRY.'

"Such is the short, plain and modest account which Mr. Henry has left of this transaction." P. 56—58.

Every American realized the truth expressed in Mr. Henry's resolutions; but no man beside himself boldly dared to utter it. All wished for independence; and all hitherto trembled at the thought of asserting it. Randolph, Bland, Pendleton, and Wythe, with 'all the old members whose influence in the house had, till then, been unbroken,' opposed the resolutions, and had not Henry's unrivalled eloquence supported them, they would have been strangled in their birth. 'The last and strongest resolution was carried by a single vote;' and Peyton Randolph said, immediately after, 'I would have given 500 guineas for a single vote!' From this we may easily imagine how spirited was the opposition, and how energetic the eloquence exerted against him. Something we attribute to the popularity of the cause which Henry advocated; while we give full credit to those who testify, that his speech was like an overwhelming flood which carries all before it. His suc-

* Judge Tyler says, "an old Coke upon Littleton."

cess in this case not more strongly attested his wonderful command of human minds, than did the reconsideration and expunging of the most important of these resolutions on the succeeding day, when the mover of them was absent. While present he gave the timid, who sighed for liberty, but dared not assert it unless powerfully stimulated, the requisite courage: when he had left them to their own reflections, when they had lost the soul which his eye and tongue inspired in them, they became as dead men.

"It was, indeed, an alpine passage, under circumstances even more unpropitious than those of Hannibal; for he had not only to fight, hand to hand, the powerful party who were already in possession of the heights, but at the same instant, to cheer and animate the timid band of followers, that were trembling, fainting, and drawing back, below him. It was an occasion that called upon him to put forth all his strength, and he did put it forth, in such a manner, as man never did before. The cords of argument, with which his adversaries frequently flattered themselves they had bound him fast, became packthreads in his hands. He burst them, with as much ease, as the unshorn Sampson did the bands of the Philistines. He seized the pillars of the temple, shook them terribly, and seemed to threaten his opponents with ruin. It was an incessant storm of lightning and thunder, which struck them aghast. The faint-hearted gathered courage from his countenance, and cowards became heroes, while they gazed upon his exploits.

"It was in the midst of this magnificent debate, while he was descending on the tyranny of the obnoxious act, that he exclaimed, in a voice of thunder, and with the look of a god, 'Cæsar had his Brutus—Charles the first, his Cromwell—and George the third—('Treason,' cried the speaker—'treason, treason,' echoed from every part of the house.—It was one of those trying moments which is decisive of character.—Henry faltered not for an instant; but rising to a loftier attitude, and fixing on the speaker an eye of the most determined fire, he finished his sentence with the firmest emphasis) *may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.*'" P. 64, 65.

To say, that 'one lash from his scourge was infamy for life; his look of anger or contempt, was almost death,' is rather calculated to excite a smile, than to provoke censure. We are pleased, we are charmed with Mr. Wirt; we are persuaded that he designed to write sober history; but really, he writes so handsomely, and flourishes with such magnificence, that we must be indulged in a partial infidelity. In one thing, however, we are firm believers, that Patrick Henry was 'never guilty of the ridiculous and common error amongst young members [of the bar]

* "I had frequently heard the above anecdote of the cry of treason, but with such variations of the concluding words, that I began to doubt whether the whole might not be fiction. With a view to ascertain the truth, therefore, I submitted it to Mr. Jefferson, as it had been given to me by judge Tyler, and this is his answer. 'I well remember the cry of treason, the pause of Mr. Henry at the name of George the III, and the presence of mind with which he closed his sentence, and baffled the charge vociferated.' The incident, therefore, becomes authentic history."

of attempting to force the subject beyond its nature, of swelling trifles into consequence, and working the ocean into tempest,

To waft a feather, or to drown a fly.

Mr. Henry had a large share of what is called *common sense*; which sometimes resembled prescience. An instance of this our author gives in the language of Mr. Pope.

"I am informed," says that gentleman, "by colonel John Overton, that before one drop of blood was shed in our contest with Great Britain, he was at colonel Samuel Overton's, in company with Mr. Henry, colonel Morris, John Hawkins, and colonel Samuel Overton, when the last mentioned gentleman asked Mr. Henry, 'whether he supposed Great Britain would drive her colonies to extremities? And if she should, what he thought would be the issue of the war?' When Mr. Henry, after looking round to see who were present, expressed himself confidentially to the company in the following manner. 'She *will* drive us to extremities—no accommodation *will* take place—hostilities will soon commence—and a desperate and bloody touch it will be.' 'But,' said colonel Samuel Overton, 'do you think, Mr. Henry, that an infant nation as we are, without discipline, arms, ammunition, ships of war, or money to procure them—do you think it possible, thus circumstanced, to oppose successfully the fleets and armies of Great Britain?' 'I will be candid with you,' replied Mr. Henry. 'I doubt whether we *shall* be able, *alone*, to cope with so powerful a nation. But,' continued he, (rising from his chair with great animation,) 'where is France? Where is Spain? Where is Holland? the natural enemies of Great Britain—Where will they be, all this while? Do you suppose they will stand by, idle and indifferent spectators of the contest? Will Louis the XVI be asleep all this time? Believe me, *no!* When Louis the XVI shall be satisfied by our serious opposition, and our *Declaration of Independence*, that all prospect of reconciliation is gone, then, and not till then, will he furnish us with arms, ammunition, and clothing; and not with these only, but he will send his fleets and armies to fight our battles for us; he will form with us a treaty offensive and defensive, against our unnatural mother. Spain and Holland will join the confederation! Our independence will be established! and we shall take our stand among the nations of the earth!' Here he ceased; and colonel John Overton says, he shall never forget the voice and prophetic manner with which these predictions were uttered, and which have been since so literally verified. Colonel Overton says, at the word *independence*, the company appeared to be startled; for they had never heard any thing of the kind before, even suggested." P. 93, 94.

It was not long after this, that Mr. Henry had an opportunity of exciting his countrymen to make the anticipated declaration of independence; for he was deputed by Virginia to attend the first meeting of the colonial congress, which convened in Carpenter's Hall, in the city of Philadelphia, on the 4th of September, 1774. In this meeting of patriots, Patrick Henry was the first person that arose to speak; but not until the occasion called for a mind of noble daring, and heroic love of liberty. Mr. Wirt has finely depicted this scene; and we quote him, without any apprehension of wearying our readers.

"The most eminent men of the various colonies, were now for the first time, brought together. They were known to each other by fame, but they were personally strangers. The meeting was awfully solemn. The object which had called them together, was of incalculable magnitude. The liberties of no less than three millions of people, with that of all their posterity, were staked on the wisdom and energy of their councils. No wonder, then, at the long and deep silence which is said to have followed upon their organization; at the anxiety with which the members looked around upon each other; and the reluctance which every individual felt to open a business so fearfully momentous. In the midst of this deep and death-like silence, and just when it was beginning to become painfully embarrassing, Mr. Henry arose slowly, as if borne down by the weight of the subject. After faltering, according to his habit, through a most impressive exordium, in which he merely echoed back the consciousness of every other heart, in deploring his inability to do justice to the occasion, he lunched gradually, into a recital of the colonial wrongs. Rising, as he advanced, with the grandeur of his subject, and glowing at length, with all the majesty and expectation of the occasion, his speech seemed more than that of mortal man. Even those who had heard him in all his glory, in the house of burgesses of Virginia, were astonished at the manner in which his talents seemed to swell and expand themselves, to fill the vaster theatre in which he was now placed. There was no rant—no rhapsody—no labour of the understanding—no straining of the voice—no confusion of the utterance. His countenance was erect—his eye steady—his action noble—his enunciation clear and firm—his mind poised on its centre—his views of his subject comprehensive and great—and his imagination, corruscating with a magnificence and a variety, which struck even that assembly with amazement and awe. He sat down amidst murmurs of astonishment and applause; and as he had been before proclaimed the greatest orator of Virginia, he was now, on every hand, admitted to be the first orator of America." P. 105, 106.

The luminous picture of Henry is not left wholly destitute of shades and blemishes. He could speak to congress, but he could not speak for them, to any persons beyond the sound of his voice. The sound of his eloquence could not reach the throne and parliament of England, although the fame of it did. Lee and Henry, 'when called down from the heights of declamation, to the severer tests of intellectual excellence, *the details of business*, found themselves in a body of cool-headed, reflecting and most able men, by whom, they were in their turn, completely thrown into the shade;' for neither of them could write such an address as congress would adopt. Mr. Lee's draught was laid on the table, and in its place one was accepted, from the pen of that eminent patriot and politician, John Jay. Mr. Henry presented, according to appointment, a draught of a petition to the king, which shared no better fate.

"This is one of those incidents in the life of Mr. Henry," says his biographer, "to which allusion was made in a former page, when it was observed, that notwithstanding the wonderful gifts which he had derived from nature, he lived himself, to deplore his early neglect of

literature. But for this neglect, that imperishable trophy won by the pen of Mr. John Dickinson would have been his; and the fame of his genius, instead of resting on tradition, or the short-lived report of his present biographer, would have flourished on the immortal page of the American history." P. 109.

"He had become celebrated as an orator before he had learned to compose; and it is not therefore wonderful, that when withdrawn from the kindling presence of the crowd, he was called upon for the first time to take the pen, all the spirit and flame of his genius were extinguished." P. 111.

When Mr. Henry returned from this first congress to his constituents, he was asked 'whom he thought the greatest man in congress,' and replied—'If you speak of eloquence, Mr. Rutledge of South Carolina, is by far the greatest orator; but if you speak of solid information and sound judgment, colonel Washington, is unquestionably, the greatest man on that floor.'

In March, 1775, Mr. Henry was a member of 'the convention of delegates from the several counties and corporations of Virginia,' which assembled in Richmond. In this body, while all the other leading members were still disposed to pursue only milk-and-water measures, he proposed and advocated the 'embodying, arming and disciplining such a number of men,' as should be sufficient to defend the colony against the aggressions of the mother country; and, as usual, we have this proof of his powers of conviction, persuasion, and almost vivification, that he not only rivetted the attention of all, but gained his object.

"*There is no longer any room for hope,*" said he. "If we wish to be free—if we mean to preserve inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending—if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon, until the glorious object of our contest shall be obtained—we must fight!—I repeat it, sir, we must fight!! An appeal to arms and to the God of Hosts, is all that is left us!"

"They tell us, sir," continued Mr. Henry, "that we are weak—unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be the next week, or the next year? Will it be when we are totally disarmed; and when a British guard shall be stationed in every house? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance, by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies shall have bound us, hand and foot? Sir, we are not

* "Imagine to yourself," says my correspondent, (judge Tucker,) "this sentence delivered with all the calm dignity of Cato, of Utica; imagine to yourself the Roman senate, assembled in the capitol, when it was entered by the profane Gauls, who, at first, were awed by their presence, as if they had entered an assembly of the gods! imagine that you heard that Cato addressing such a senate—imagine that you saw the hand-writing on the wall of Belsazzar's palace—imagine you heard a voice as from heaven uttering the words, '*We must fight!*' as the doom of fate, and you may have some idea of the speaker, the assembly to whom he addressed himself, and the auditory, of which I was one."

weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. Three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us. Besides, sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations; and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat, but in submission and slavery! Our chains are forged. Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston! The war is inevitable—and let it come!! I repeat it, sir, let it come!!!

"It is in vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, peace, peace—but there is no peace. The war is actually begun! The next gale that sweeps from the north, will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God!—I know not what course others may take; but as for me," cried he, with both his arms extended aloft, his brows knit, every feature marked with the resolute purpose of his soul, and his voice swelled to its boldest note of exclamation—"give me liberty, or give me death!"

"He took his seat. No murmur of applause was heard. The effect was too deep. After the trance of a moment, several members started from their seats. The cry, 'to arms,' seemed to quiver on every lip, and gleam from every eye! Richard H. Lee arose and supported Mr. Henry, with his usual spirit and elegance. But his melody was lost amidst the agitations of that ocean, which the master spirit of the storm had lifted up on high. That supernatural voice still sounded in their ears, and shivered along their arteries. They heard, in every pause, the cry of liberty or death. They became impatient of speech—their souls were on fire for action."* P. 122—124.

* Mr. Randolph in his manuscript history, has given a most eloquent and impressive account of this debate. Since these sheets were prepared for the press, and at the moment of their departure from the hands of the author, he has received from chief-justice Marshall, a note in relation to the same debate, which he thinks too interesting to suppress. It is the substance of a statement made to the chief-justice (then an ardent youth, feeling a most enthusiastic admiration of eloquence, and panting for war) by his father, who was a member of this convention. Mr. Marshall, (the father,) after speaking of Mr. Henry's speech "as one of the most bold, vehement, and animated pieces of eloquence that had ever been delivered," proceeded to state, that "he was followed by Mr. Richard H. Lee, who took a most interesting view of our real situation. He stated the force which Britain could probably bring to bear upon us, and reviewed our resources and means of resistance. He stated the advantages and disadvantages of both parties, and drew from this statement, suspicious inferences. But he concluded with saying, admitting the probable calculations to be against us, 'we are assured in holy writ that the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong; and if the language of genius may be added to inspiration, I will say with our immortal bard:

Thrice, is he armed, who hath his quarrel just!
And he, but naked, though lock'd up in steel,
Whose conscience, with injustice is oppress'd!"

We hear a little too frequently of tones that mingle with the nerves, and a voice that shivers along the arteries; but still Mr. Wirt's description of Mr. Henry, we think as superlatively eloquent as the speeches which are reported.

On the 20th of April, 1775, the king's governor, Dunmore, clandestinely removed twenty barrels of powder from the magazine in Williamsburg; and on the 2d of May, Mr. Henry having convened the Independent Company of Hanover by request, addressed them; was appointed their leader; and marched them against his excellency; who thought it advisable to comply with the demand of this inexperienced officer, and save his own person, by paying three hundred and thirty pounds, the estimated value of the powder. 'Thus, the same man, whose genius had in the year 1765 given the first political impulse to the revolution, had now the additional honour of heading the first military movement in Virginia, in support of the same cause.' To honour him for this exploit, and to subserve the interests of the people, the colonial convention of Virginia which met in July, 1775, appointed him 'colonel of the first regiment, and the commander of all the forces raised, and to be raised, for the defence of the colony!' This convention appointed also a committee of safety, which officiated as the temporary executive of the colony, in the absence of governor Dunmore; who, having in a horrible manner committed murder, sought security in flight. This committee seem to have questioned Mr. Henry's capacity for the superintendence of an army, because he wanted science and experience; and hence, united with some aspiring officers, to render his commission an empty title. He solicited the post of peril; he demanded permission to face the enemy; and they gave him—snug winter quarters in Williamsburg. Without any good reason, the committee were determined to estimate him, not as our government, during the late war, estimated our gallant Gaines, Scott, Ripley, Brown and Jackson, who, instead of being condemned before trial, were sent to the conflict. Mr. Henry was the subject of cruel machinations, and shameful injustice; but let us not wonder at it; for the committee of safety saw no impropriety in constituting the same man a colonel of a regiment, and the commander in chief of all the forces. In modern military tactics, a captain general of a state, would cut a figure indeed, were he to play the colonel to himself in the character of generalissimo!

The colonial congress too, were misguided; and induced to supercede our colonel commander in chief, without having given him any opportunity to signalize himself. We cannot wonder, that in disgust he retired from the service; we admire him for still retaining all his patriotism; and honour him for stimulating his fellow soldiers, (who were disposed to resent the indignity done their favourite leader,) to continue the defenders of our American liberties. 'He was the more reconciled to the necessity which had compelled him to resign, because he believed that

he would, perhaps, serve the cause of his country more effectually, in the public councils than in the field.'

Immediately upon his resignation, he was elected a delegate to the convention of Virginia, which met in 1776, published a *declaration of rights*, established a plan of government, and elected him the first republican governor for the commonwealth. The *palace* of the late kingly governor was appropriated to his use, and suitably furnished at the public expense. His good sense taught him that it was now time to pay a little attention to his own personal dignity, and appearance; he put off, therefore, his blood-stained, oleaginous, leather breeches, and appeared in dignified attire. His far famed plainness, nevertheless, when he was the celebrated orator, must have rendered, in some measure, fashionable, that inattention to dress, and even that slovenliness, for which many of the gentlemen of Virginia have been censured.

"Judge Winston says, that 'he was, *throughout life*, negligent of his dress: but this, it is apprehended, applied rather to his habits in the country, than to his appearance in public. At the bar of the general court, he always appeared in a full suit of black cloth, or velvet, and a tie wig, which was dressed and powdered in the highest style of forensic fashion; in the winter season, too, according to the *costume* of the day, he wore over his other apparel, an ample cloak of scarlet cloth; and thus attired, made a figure bordering on grandeur. While he filled the executive chair, he is said to have been justly attentive to his dress and appearance; 'not being disposed to afford the occasion of humiliating comparisons between the past and present government.'" P. 407.

In the spring of 1777, and again in 1778, Mr. Henry was unanimously re-elected governor. In 1779, there was a disposition to re-elect him; but he declined the honour, because he thought the constitution of the republic rendered him ineligible. During this administration of public affairs he was firm, and remarkably faithful to Washington, against whom some evil spirits were continually plotting mischief. In the year 1780, we find him again in the assembly, and one of the most active members of the house.

"During the winter session of this year, general Gates entered the city of Richmond from his southern campaign, where he had most wefully fulfilled general Lee's prediction. His total defeat at Camden, and a series of subsequent ill fortune, had left South Carolina completely in the hands of the victorious British; and to increase his humiliation, congress had not only superseded him in that command, by the substitution of general Greene, but had passed a resolution requiring the commander in chief to order a court of inquiry on his conduct. Under these accumulated disgraces, the unfortunate general entered the city of Richmond; when Mr. Henry moved a resolution, which displays in a most engaging light, the delicate and generous sensibility of his character: it was as follows:

'Resolved, That a committee of four be appointed to wait on major general Gates, and to assure him of the high regard and esteem of this house; that the remembrance of his former glorious services cannot be obliterated by any reverse of fortune; but that this house, ever mindful of his great merit, will omit no opportunity of testifying to the world,

the gratitude which, as a member of the American union, this country owes to him, in his military character.'

"The author may be permitted to say of a state, which is *his* only by adoption, that to those who know the character of Virginians, it would be unnecessary to add, that this generous resolution passed *unanimously*." P. 227—228.

After the establishment of our independence, and the restoration of peace, Mr. Henry proved himself the friend of his country by advocating, the very unpopular, but highly useful, measure, of permitting the British refugees, commonly called 'the old tories,' to return and enjoy the blessings of a free country. On this subject, we hear him speaking with something like prophetic skill to the legislature of his native state.

"Sir, you are destined, at some time or other, to become a great agricultural and commercial people; the only question is, whether you choose to reach this point, by slow gradations, and at some distant period—lingering on, through a long and sickly minority—subjected, meanwhile, to the machinations, insults and oppressions of enemies foreign and domestic, without sufficient strength to resist and chastise them—or whether you choose rather to rush at once, as it were, to the full enjoyment of those high destinies, and be able to cope, single-handed, with the proudest oppressor of the old world. If you prefer the latter course, as I trust you do, encourage emigration—encourage the husbandman, the mechanics, the merchants of the old world to come and settle in this land of promise—make it the home of the skilful, the industrious, the fortunate and happy, as well as the asylum of the distressed—fill up the measure of your population as speedily as you can, by the means which Heaven hath placed in your power—and I venture to prophecy there are those now living, who will see this favoured land amongst the most powerful on earth—able, sir, to take care of herself, without resorting to that policy which is always so dangerous, though sometimes unavoidable, of calling in foreign aid. Yes, sir—they will see her great in arts and in arms—her golden harvests waving over fields of immeasurable extent—her commerce penetrating the most distant seas, and her cannon silencing the vain boasts of those, who now proudly affect to rule the waves. But, sir, you must have *men*—you cannot get along without them—those heavy forests of valuable timber, under which your lands are groaning, must be cleared away—those vast riches which cover the face of your soil, as well as those which lie hid in its bosom, are to be developed and gathered only by the skill and enterprise of men—your timber sir, must be worked up into ships to transport the productions of the soil, from which it has been cleared—then, you must have commercial men and commercial capital, to take off your productions and find the best markets for them abroad—your great want sir, is the want of men; and these you must have, and will have speedily, if you are wise. Do you ask how you are to get them?—Open your doors, sir, and they will come in—the population of the old world is full to overflowing—that population is ground too, by the oppressions of the governments under which they live. Sir, they are already standing on tiptoe upon their native shores, and looking to your coasts, with a wishful and longing eye—they see here, a land blessed with natural and political advantages, which are not

equalled by those of any other country upon earth—a land on which a gracious Providence hath emptied the horn of abundance—a land over which peace hath now stretched forth her white wings, and where content and plenty lie down at every door! Sir, they see something still more attractive than all this—they see a land in which liberty hath taken up her abode—that liberty, whom they had considered as a fabled goddess, existing only in the fancies of poets—they see her here, a real divinity—her altars rising on every hand, throughout these happy states—her glories chaunted by three millions of tongues—and the whole region smiling under her blessed influence. Sir, let but this our celestial goddess, liberty, stretch forth her fair hand towards the people of the old world—tell them to come, and bid them welcome—and you will see them pouring in from the north—from the south—from the east, and from the west—your wildernesses will be cleared and settled—your deserts will smile—your ranks will be filled—and you will soon be in a condition to defy the powers of any adversary.

“But gentlemen object to any accession from Great Britain—and particularly to the return of the British refugees. Sir, I feel no objection to the return of those deluded people—they have, to be sure, mistaken their own interests most wofully, and most wofully have they suffered the punishment due to their offences. But the relations which we bear to them and to their native country, are now changed—their king hath acknowledged our independence—the quarrel is over—peace hath returned, and found us a free people. Let us have the magnanimity, sir, to lay aside our antipathies and prejudices, and consider the subject in a political light—those are an enterprising minded people—they will be serviceable in taking off the surplus produce of our lands, and supplying us with necessaries, during the infant state of our manufactures. Even if they be inimical to us in point of feeling and principle, I can see no objection, in a political view, in making them tributary to our advantage. And as I have no prejudices to prevent my making this use of them, so sir, I have no fear of any mischief that they can do us. Afraid of *them*!—what, sir, (said he, rising to one of his loftiest attitudes, and assuming a look of the most indignant and sovereign contempt,) shall *we*, who have laid the proud British lion at our feet, now be afraid of *his whelps*?” P. 234—236.

Mr. Henry's scheme of 1784, for rearing a red and white progeny to Pochahontas, and other Indian ladies, we have not time to describe; but think it ingenious enough. In November, 1784, Mr. Henry was again elected governor of Virginia; but in 1786, 'while yet a year remained of his constitutional term,' was compelled by poverty to resign his office. He was in the same year, appointed to represent the state, in the convention held in Philadelphia for revising the federal constitution, and was prevented from attending by the same unlucky want of money. Now, when fifty years of age, he was obliged by the wants of his family, to return to the practice of the law.

“Direful must have been the necessity which drove a man of Mr. Henry's disposition and habits, at his time of life, and tempest-beaten as he was, to resume the practise of such a profession as the law. He would not, however, undertake the technical duties of the profession; his en-

agements were confined to the argument of the cause; and his clients had of course, to employ other counsel, to conduct the pleadings, and ripen their cases for hearing. Hence his practise was restricted to difficult and important cases; but his great reputation kept him constantly engaged: he was frequently called to distant courts: the light of his eloquence shone in every quarter of the state, and thousands of tongues were every where employed in repeating the fine effusions of his genius." P. 260—261.

It was impossible however, for such a man as Patrick Henry to keep long out of public life. In 1788, he was a member of the convention of the state of Virginia, which adopted the new federal constitution. We regret to say that, Mr. Henry vehemently opposed this instrument of national union, because he considered it an actual consolidation of the states: and we could have wished that Mr. Wirt had given us a shorter history of this hostility; for we love not arguments which militate against our excellent system of government. Experience has proved that Mr. Henry was erroneous in his judgment on this subject. Nevertheless, it is due to him to state, that he was the occasion of several valuable amendments to the *magna charta* of our representative government, and national glory. A portion of Mr. Wirt's history of Mr. Henry in this state convention is remarkably vivid and beautiful.

"The convention had been attended from its commencement by a vast concourse of citizens of all ages and conditions. The interest so universally felt in the question itself, and not less the transcendent talents which were engaged in its discussion, presented such attractions as could not be resisted. Industry deserted its pursuits, and even dissipation gave up its objects, for the superior enjoyments which were presented by the hall of the convention. Not only the people of the town and neighbourhood, but gentlemen from every quarter of the state, were seen thronging to the metropolis, and speeding their eager way to the building in which the convention held its meetings. Day after day, from morning till night, the galleries of the house were continually filled with an anxious crowd, who forgot the inconvenience of their situation, in the excess of their enjoyment; and far from giving any interruption to the course of the debate, increased its interest and solemnity, by their silence and attention. No bustle, no motion, no sound was heard among them, save only a slight movement when some new speaker arose, whom they were all eager to see as well as to hear, or when some master stroke of eloquence shot thrilling along their nerves, and extorted an involuntary and inarticulate murmur. Day after day, was this banquet of the mind and of the heart spread before them, with a delicacy and variety which could never cloy. There every taste might find its peculiar gratifications—the man of wit—the man of feeling—the critic—the philosopher—the historian—the metaphysician—the lover of logic—the admirer of rhetoric—every man who had an eye for the beauty of action, or an ear for the harmony of sound, or a soul for the charms of poetic fancy—in short every one who could see, or hear, or feel, or understand, might find in the wanton profusion and prodigality of that attic feast, some delicacy adapted to his peculiar taste.

Every mode of attack and of defence, of which the human mind is capable, in decorous debate—every species of weapon and armour, offensive and defensive, that could be used with advantage, from the Roman javelin to the Parthian arrow, from the cloud of *Aneas*, to the shield of *Achilles*—all that could be accomplished by human strength, and almost more than human activity, was seen exhibited on that celebrated floor. Nor did the debate become oppressive by its unvarying formality. The stateliness and sternness of extended argument, were frequently relieved by quick and animated dialogue. Sometimes the conversation would become familiar and friendly. The combatants themselves, would seem pleased with this relief; forget that they were enemies, and by a sort of informal truce put off their armour, and sit down amicably together to repose, as it were, in the shade of the same tree. By this agreeable intermixture of colloquial sprightliness and brilliancy, with profound, and learned, and vigorous argument—of social courtesy with heroic gallantry, the audience, far from being fatigued with the discussion, looked with regret to the hour of adjournment.

“In this great competition of talents, Mr. Henry’s powers of debate still shone pre-eminent. They were now exhibiting themselves in a new aspect. Hitherto his efforts, however splendid, had been comparatively short and occasional. In the house of burgesses in 1765, in the congress of 1774, and the state convention of 1775, he had exhibited the impetuous charge of the gallant Francis the first; but now, in combination with fiery force, he was displaying all the firm and dauntless constancy of Charles the fifth. No shock of his adversaries could move him from his ground. His resources never failed. His eloquence was poured from inexhaustible fountains, and assumed every variety of hue and form and motion, which could delight or persuade, instruct or astonish. Sometimes it was the limpid rivulet, sparkling down the mountain’s side, and winding its silver course between margins of moss—then gradually swelling to a bolder stream, it roared in the headlong cataract, and spread its rainbows to the sun—now, it flowed on in tranquil majesty, like a river of the west, reflecting from its polished surface, forest, and cliff, and sky—anon, it was the angry ocean, chafed by the tempest, hanging its billows, with deafening clamours, among the cracking shrouds, or hurling them in sublime defiance, at the storm that frowned above.

“Towards the close of the session, an incident occurred of a character so extraordinary as to deserve particular notice. The question of adoption or rejection was now approaching. The decision was still uncertain, and every mind and every heart was filled with anxiety. Mr. Henry partook most deeply of this feeling; and while engaged, as it were, in his last effort, availed himself of the strong sensation which he knew to pervade the house, and made an appeal to it which, in point of sublimity, has never been surpassed in any age or country of the world. After describing, in accents which spoke to the soul, and to which every other bosom deeply responded, the awful immensity of the question to the present and future generations, and the throbbing apprehensions with which he looked to the issue, he passed from the house and from the earth, and looking, as he said, “beyond that horizon which binds mortal eyes,” he pointed—with a countenance and action that made the blood run back upon the aching heart—to those celestial beings, who

were hovering over the scene, and waiting with anxiety for a decision which involved the happiness or misery of more than half the human race. To those beings—with the same thrilling look and action—he had just addressed an invocation, that made every nerve shudder with supernatural horror—when lo! a storm, at that instant arose, which shook the whole building, and the spirits whom he had called, seemed to have come at his bidding. Nor did his eloquence, or the storm, immediately cease—but, availing himself of the incident, with a master's art, he seemed to mix in the fight of his æthereal auxiliaries, and “rising on the wings of the tempest, to seize upon the artillery of Heaven, and direct its fiercest thunders against the heads of his adversaries.” The scene became insupportable; and the house rose, without the formality of adjournment, the members rushing from their seats with precipitation and confusion.”*

The perusal of this paragraph reminded us of a similar scene. A clergyman was delivering a discourse on the attributes, and particularly the majesty of Deity, when the clouds suddenly gathered blackness, and rushed in a tremendous storm upon the church. The thunderbolts of the Almighty shook the hearts of the hearers, and they attributed it to the eloquence of their preacher. On the next day they sent a deputation to him, to request a copy of his remarkable sermon for publication. He declined giving it, because he could assure them, that the discourse did not excel those which they commonly heard. They insisted on being indulged with a copy, because they could not think their preacher's judgment of his own work correct. Finally, he said, that he would consent that his sermon should be printed, but only on one condition. The deputation eagerly inquired what the condition might be: and the shrewd clergyman replied, ‘that they should print the thunder, and lightning, and storm, along with his sermon!’

We doubt not but Mr. Henry's hearers started from their seats; and we are well persuaded too, that the winged fires of heaven aided his zeal, in melting their hearts; but could that very tempest be printed, we should then be able to judge whether the storm or the eloquence of man gave the greater part of the electrical shock to the minds of the delegates. For an account of Mr. Henry's most celebrated speech, we must refer our readers to the book under review. After giving us an account of his having procured the acquittal of one who ought to have been hung, the author amuses us with the following recital.

“Mr. Henry was not less successful in the comic line, when it became necessary to resort to it. You have, no doubt, heard how he defeated John Hook, by raising the cry of *beef* against him. I will give

* The words above quoted are those of judge Archibald Stuart; a gentleman who was present, a member of the convention, and one of those who voted against the side of the question, supported by Mr. Henry. The incident as given in the text, is wholly founded on the statements of those who were witnesses of the scene; and by comparing it with the corresponding passage in the printed debates, the reader may decide how far these are to be relied on, as specimens of Mr. Henry's eloquence.

you a similar instance. In the year 1792, there were many suits on the south side of James river, for inflicting Lynch's law.* A verdict of five hundred pounds had been given in Prince Edward district court, in a case of this kind. This alarmed the defendant in the next case, who employed Mr. Henry to defend him. The case was, that a wagoner and the plaintiff were travelling to Richmond together, when the wagoner knocked down a turkey, and put it into his wagon. Complaint was made to the defendant, a justice of the peace; both the parties were taken up, and the wagoner agreed to take a whipping, rather than be sent to jail: but the plaintiff refused: the justice, however, gave him also a small flagellation; and for this the suit was brought. The plaintiff, by way of taking off the force of the defence, insisted, that he was wholly innocent of the act committed. Mr. Henry, on the contrary, contended, that he was a party present, aiding and assisting. In the course of his remarks, he expressed himself thus: 'But, gentlemen of the jury, the plaintiff tells you he had nothing to do with the turkey—I dare say, gentlemen, *not until it was roasted*,' &c. He pronounced this word *roasted* with such rotundity of voice, such a ludicrous whirl of the tongue, and in a manner so indescribably comical, that it threw every one into a fit of laughter at the plaintiff, who stood up in the place usually allotted to criminals; and the defendant was let off, with little or no damages."

"The case of John Hook, to which my correspondent alludes, is worthy of insertion. Hook was a Scotchman, a man of wealth, and suspected of being unfriendly to the American cause. During the distresses of the American army, consequent on the joint invasion of Cornwallis and Phillips in 1781, a Mr. Venable, an army commissary, had taken two of Hook's steers for the use of the troops. The act had not been strictly legal; and on the establishment of peace, Hook, under the advice of Mr. Cowan, a gentleman of some distinction in the law, thought proper to bring an action of trespass against Mr. Venable, in the district court of New London. Mr. Henry appeared for the defendant, and is said to have disported himself in this cause to the infinite enjoyment of his hearers, the unfortunate Hook always excepted. After Mr. Henry became animated in the cause, says a correspondent,† he appeared to have complete control over the passions of his audience: at one time he excited their indignation against Hook: vengeance was visible in every countenance: again, when he chose to relax and ridicule him, the whole audience was in a roar of laughter. He painted the distresses of the American army, exposed almost naked to the rigour of a winter's sky, and marking the frozen ground over which they marched, with the blood of their unshod feet; where was the man, he said, who had an American heart in his bosom, who would not have thrown open his fields, his barns, his cellars, the doors of his house, the portals of his breast, to have received with open arms, the meanest soldier in that little band of famished patriots? Where is the man?—*There*

* Thirty-nine lashes, inflicted without trial or law, on mere suspicion of guilt, which could not be regularly proven. This lawless practice, which sometimes by the order of a magistrate, sometimes without, prevailed extensively in the upper counties on James river, took its name from the gentleman who set the first example of it.

† Judge Stuart.

he stands—but whether the heart of an American beats in his bosom, you, gentlemen, are to judge. He then carried the jury, by the powers of his imagination, to the plains around York, the surrender of which had followed shortly after the act complained of: he depicted the surrender in the most glowing and noble colours of his eloquence—the audience saw before their eyes the humiliation and dejection of the British, as they marched out of their trenches—they saw the triumph which lighted up every patriotic face, and heard the shouts of victory, and the cry of Washington and liberty, as it rung and echoed through the American ranks, and was reverberated from the hills and shores of the neighbouring river—but, hark, what notes of discord are these which disturb the general joy, and silence the acclamations of victory—they are the notes of *John Hook*, hoarsely bawling through the American camp, *beef! beef! beef!*”

“The whole audience were convulsed: a particular incident will give a better idea of the effect, than any general description. The clerk of the court, unable to command himself, and unwilling to commit any breach of decorum in his place, rushed out of the court house and threw himself on the grass, in the most violent paroxysm of laughter, where he was rolling, when Hook, with very different feelings, came out, for relief, into the yard also. ‘Jemmy Steptoe,’ said he to the clerk, ‘what the devil ails ye, mon?’ Mr. Steptoe was only able to say, that *he could not help it*. ‘Never mind ye,’ said Hook; ‘wait till Billy Cowan gets up: *he’ll show him the la’*.’ Mr. Cowan, however, was so completely overwhelmed by the torrent which bore upon his client, that when he rose to reply to Mr. Henry, he was scarcely able to make an intelligible or audible remark. The cause was decided almost by acclamation. The jury retired for form sake, and instantly returned with a verdict for the defendant. Nor did the effect of Mr. Henry’s speech stop here. The people were so highly excited by the tory audacity of such a suit, that Hook began to hear around him a cry more terrible than that of *beef*: it was the cry of *tar and feathers*: from the application of which, it is said, that nothing saved him but a precipitate flight and the speed of his horse.”

A fund of other highly interesting matter might be extracted; but of the venerable Henry we have only room to say, that he again declined the honour of being governor; that he became rich, and perhaps, penurious; that in 1794, he bade adieu to his profession; and that the following letter is worthy of being had in everlasting remembrance.

“My dear Botsey,

“Mr. William Aylett’s arrival here, with your letter, gave me the pleasure of hearing of your welfare, and to hear of that, is highly gratifying to me, as I so seldom see you, &c. (the rest of this paragraph relates to family affairs.)

“As to the reports you have heard of my changing sides in politics, I can only say they are not true. I am too old to exchange my former opinions, which have grown up into fixed habits of thinking. True it is, I have condemned the conduct of our members in congress, because in refusing to raise money for the purposes of the British treaty, they in effect, would have surrendered our country bound, hand and foot to the power of the British nation. This must have been the consequence,

I think; but the reasons for thinking so, are too tedious to trouble you with. The treaty is, in my opinion, a very bad one indeed. But what must I think of those men, whom I myself warned of the danger of giving the power of making laws by means of treaty, to the president and senate, when I see these same men denying the existence of that power, which they insisted in our convention, ought properly to be exercised by the president and senate, and by none other? The policy of these men, both then and now, appears to me quite void of wisdom and foresight. These sentiments I did mention in conversation in Richmond, and perhaps others which I don't remember; but sure I am, my first principle is, that from the British we have every thing to dread, when opportunities of oppressing us shall offer.

"It seems that every word was watched which I casually dropped, and wrested to answer party views. Who can have been so meanly employed, I know not—nor do I care; for I no longer consider myself as an actor on the stage of public life. It is time for me to retire; and I shall never more appear in a public character, unless some unlooked for circumstance shall demand from me a transient effort, not inconsistent with private life—in which I have determined to continue. I see with concern, our old commander in chief most abusively treated—nor are his long and great services remembered, as any apology for his mistakes in an office to which he was totally unaccustomed. If he, whose character as our leader during the whole war, was above all praise, is so roughly handled in his old age, what may be expected by men of the common standard of character? I ever wished he might keep himself clear of the office he bears, and its attendant difficulties—but I am sorry to see the gross abuse which is published of him. Thus, my dear daughter, have I pestered you with a long letter on politics, which is a subject little interesting to you, except as it may involve my reputation. I have long learned the little value which is to be placed on popularity, acquired by any other way than virtue; and I have also learned that it is often obtained by other means. The view which the rising greatness of our country presents to my eyes, is greatly tarnished by the general prevalence of deism; which with me, is but another name for vice and depravity. I am, however, much consoled by reflecting, that the religion of Christ, has from its first appearance in the world, been attacked in vain, by all the wits, philosophers, and wise ones, aided by every power of man, and its triumph has been complete. What is there in the wit, or wisdom of the present deistical writers or professors, that can compare them with Hume, Shaftsbury, Bolingbroke, and others? and yet these have been confuted, and their fame decaying; insomuch that the puny efforts of Paine are thrown in, to prop their tottering fabrick, whose foundations cannot stand the test of time. Amongst other strange things said of me, I hear it is said by the deists that I am one of the number; and indeed, that some good people think I am no christian. This thought gives me much more pain, than the appellation of tory; because I think religion of infinitely higher importance than politics; and I find much cause to reproach myself, that I have lived so long, and have given no decided and public proofs of my being a christian. But, indeed, my dear child, this is a character which I prize far above all this world has or can boast. And amongst all the handsome things I hear said of you, what gives me the

greatest pleasure is, to be told of your piety and steady virtue. Be assured there is not one tittle, as to disposition or character, in which my parental affection for you, would suffer a wish for your changing; and it flatters my pride to have you spoken of, as you are.

"Perhaps Mr. Roane and Anne may have heard the reports you mention. If it will be any object with them to see what I write you, show them this. But my wish is to pass the rest of my days, as much as may be, unobserved by the critics of the world, who would show but little sympathy for the deficiencies to which old age is so liable. May God bless you, my dear Betsey, and your children. Give my love to Mr. Aylett, and believe me ever your affectionate father,

"P. HENRY."

Of the 'Sketches' in general, we cannot forbear remarking, that they are highly finished pictures. The book is handsomely printed; the sentiments it approbates are universally just; and the reader has an interesting portion of the civil history of his country blended with the memoirs of a great and good man. The author exposes and censures Mr. Henry's failings; he presents his virtues in all their winning loveliness. We could wish every American, and especially the young men, who think pride, profaneness and useless lives honourable, would attentively peruse this fine production. It is a good model for biographical writers, and not unworthy of the author of the British Spy.

ART. II.—Wine.

SIR—During the continuance of judge Cooper's Emporium, we were treated occasionally with essays on cookery and wine, which seemed very much to the taste of the readers of that work, scientific as it was. I do not pretend to find fault with the judgment or the taste of that gentleman, but I think the author of the following pages has had as much experience on the subject, and is as well entitled to offer advice upon it, as the learned editor of the Emporium.

For these last thirty years, Beauvilliers' eating house at Paris, has been considered as the best in Europe. No person who has visited Paris, is ignorant of his reputation; nor has any traveller to the metropolis of France, able to pay for a good dinner, neglected to pay his respects to the elegant rooms of that restaurateur in the palais royal.

About three or four years ago, Beauvilliers having acquired a large fortune, left off business, and in gratitude to his customers, he published his *Art du Cusnier*, of which the second edition, in 2 vols. 8vo. appeared in 1816. At the end of the second volume, he has inserted a dissertation on wines, which for the edification of your readers, connoisseurs and amateurs in all the knowledge that appertains to the character of a bon vivant, and accomplished amphytrion,* I transmit for insertion in your magazine. I can

* Amphytrion, is the inviter, the host, the entertainer at a dinner party; a situation that requires not only elegant taste in the direction of his table, but much reflection and good sense in the arrangement of his parties.

have no doubt, but an analytic review of Beauvilliers' wine cellar, will be as instructing and interesting as any review whatever which your magazine can furnish. I have added a few notes which I presume to think, will not be out of place.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

A CONSTANT READER.

Choice of wines.—In choosing wine, examine it well, immediately from the cask which is offered you. It should be perfectly clear;* if red, of a bright ruby colour; and smell like a nosegay. Taste it, to ascertain if it be free from any earthy taste—not sweet—lively without being tart†—full without being hard—but dry. These are the qualities of good wine. If it have these, you may buy; all that relates to flavour depends on delicacy of taste, and an experienced palate.

Wine is not good, till it has acquired maturity in the cask, and lost part of its watery substance. New wine ferments in the stomach, and affects the head: if it be too old, it loses its liveliness and flavour, and affects the nerves. The maturity of wine, does not depend entirely on the years of its age. Wines of some vintages will be ripe in two or three, others not till four or five years old. This depends partly on its age, and partly on the circumstances of its growth; which should be inquired into; for the taste alone cannot decide exactly when wine is fit for use.

Of the wines of France.—Of the French wines, which are every where held in great estimation, those of Burgundy are the best: at least if we may judge from the coincidence of taste among connoisseurs, who prefer them to the other wines of France, for odour, flavour, fineness, and facility of digestion. In upper Burgundy, every vineyard has its peculiar character and name. Those of Auxerre and Tonnerre, are justly prized. If I were to dwell upon each of them, I should exceed my limits; I speak, therefore, now, of the principal kinds.

The wine of *Beaure*, enjoys the first reputation. It is of a bright ruby colour; it has all the good qualities that wine should have. It bears mixing with water‡ well. It keeps longer also without alteration than most others. But this wine is at its best usually at four or five years old.

Next to *Beaure* wine, come those of Pomard, Volnay, Nuit, Chassagne, St. Georges, Vonne, Chambutin, Clos Vougeot, and la Romanée. Perhaps la Romanée-Conty, is the best of the Burgundy red wines. Of the white wines of that district, le Morachet

* Wine merchants do not trust to a glass: they have a well polished wide-mouthed silver cup, not plain but figured at the bottom, to reflect the light through the wine, more distinctly.

† Judge Cooper's recommendation of litmus paper as a test of pricked wines, deserves notice: all wines are acid to a certain degree: those are wholesomest which are least so. The morning head-ach is owing to the acid of tartar.

‡ The French drink this wine, or wine and water, as a beverage at dinner. This is seldom the practice of an English table, where the beverage is malt liquor; or at an American table, where it is usually brandy and water.

is the finest; then comes the wine of Meursault; then the wine of Chablais. Burgundy does not produce many white wines.

Next to the wines of Burgundy, are those of Champagne; so well known as to render it unnecessary for me to dwell upon them. At all grand entertainments, Champagne wine is indispensable; its known quality is to produce gayety, and to enliven the spirits. Throughout Champagne, the grapes cultivated are black, although the wine be white, or slightly tinged with red (*oeil de perdrix*.) The red wines of Champagne are lightly esteemed, except those from Bouzy, Verzai, or Vergenai. They are somewhat fiery in the mouth, though light and of a pleasant odour. Champagne is aperitive; it intoxicates easily; but will not bear water.* The most esteemed vineyards of Champagne, are those in the neighbourhood of Rheims, such as Ay, Silleri, and Espernay. These white wines keep best, when made of black grapes. Before the late method of making Champagne wine, it was rare that it would keep more than three years before it became sick. In fact, few wines are so liable to disorder and to spoil, as Champagne. When they are so, they become muddy, they let fall a sediment, and a kind of filament, or threads are seen in the liquor, which are unpleasant to the eye. Hence, you should not lay in a large stock of Champagne, even though the price should be reasonable, and the vintage good; for the accidents to which it is liable, may make it come ultimately at a high price.

Bordeaux wines. (Claret.)—These also are reckoned among the best wines of France. They may be classed thus:

1st. The principal vineyards for the red wines of Bordeaux, are Lafitte-du-Chateau; La Tour; Chateau Margau; Aubrion du Chateau; Premier Grave; and Segur Medoc.

2d class. Mouton-Canon; Medoc-Canon; Saint Emilion, (or Emelien;) Rosans; Margau; la rose Medoc; Pichon-Longueville; Medoc-Potelet; St. Julien-les-Ville; St. Julien; Vin du Pape, (red Grave wine); Vin de la Mission, (red Grave wine also); and all the wine of upper Pevac; all these are equally delicious.

3d class. These wines, as commonly classed, may serve at entertainments for the second course of wine. All the numerous wines of Pouillac, are of good quality; those of Mess. de Gescourt, and St. Esteve-Catenac are much esteemed; so indeed are many others, too numerous to particularize. I shall only observe to purchasers of these wines, that they may expect them all to be sick in the bottle, after having been bottled about two months. † In this state, they will seem far inferior to cask wine; but about four months more brings them round. All these wines require to be bottled, to bring them to perfection.

* Champagne is too cold a climate to produce a good wine. Dr. Clark is right about it, when, in his *Travels*, he says, it is seldom made of ripe grapes, and is doctored with sugar, to supply the deficient perfection of the fruit.

† Wine changes in proportion to the quantity of air included between the cork and the wine: so says the editor of the *Emporium*.

White wines of Bourdeaux.—Those of upper Barsac (Haut Barsac et le haut Perpignac) and upper Perpignac are of the first quality. After these comes Santerne. The wines of Barsac, Lanjon, Carbonieux, and Podecilac, are of the second order.

*The wines of Languedoc, Hermitage and Cota Rota**—of Dauphiny and Provence.—The wine of l'Ermitage is red, bright, well-flavoured, and of excellent odour; it is well known. They require time, several years, to ripen; but when arrived at maturity they are delicious.

The white wines of these districts are more heady, and bear upon a yellow tint. Those of Rousillon are stronger, and fuller. They require considerable time to ripen. They must settle perfectly, and require for this, frequent racking. When clear, they will keep thirty years or more, and then assume the flavour of Alicant wine. They must be filtered for use, for they afford a sediment in the bottle; that is, the red wines do so; the white, do not.

The wines of Languedoc are very good; the ladies like them; particularly the Muscat wine of Frontignan. It is both white and red. It is a clammy luscious wine, and intoxicates easily: a glass of this wine is good with sweetmeats and preserves, but not to drink in larger quantity.

After this, come the white and red Lunel, which in some years are equal to the Frontignan (Frontiniac generally, but improperly so called.) The white wine of Jurancon in le Bearn, lower Pyrenees, is excellent. It has the peculiarity of reminding one, by its flavour and by its odour, of Truffles. These wines keep many years.

The wines of Provence are good, but the red are too luscious (liquereux.) The white wines are Muscats for the most part. The most esteemed are those of Gemenos, called wine of Toulon, of la Marque, of Barbautan; with many others too numerous to recount. They are drunk at the desert.

The wines of Tavelle, are heady, but very good. Those of Cote Rotie, Saint Peyret, Condrieux, are much esteemed: and formerly no others were served between the courses. At present, the Bourdeaux wine has occupied their place at Paris.

I have not room to mention all the good vineyards of France. Those I have already noticed, are of the first estimation.

After the French, I proceed to speak of other wines. Those of the United Provinces, such as de Barre; de la Moselle, du Rhin.*

† Cote Rotie; commonly, but improperly, spelt Cota Rota, as if it were an Italian wine.

* All these are thin, meagre, acidulous, pleasant wines: good to wash the mouth with after soup. Apt to produce heart-burn; unfit for gouty people: even old Hock, is an inferior wine. They are the produce of cold countries: inferior to fine cider or perry.

The wine of Barre, is red; pleasant; but not a superior wine. It is wholesome, easy of digestion; but does not bear transportation; hence its use is chiefly confined to the vicinity of its growth.

Moselle wine is white, light, aperient, pleasant.—(acid, gouty.)

Rhine wine, from the mountains bordering that river, is much the same,

Not to hurry the reader too far away from one country to another, I proceed to the wines of Hungary.

The wine of St. Georges, is usually sold as Tokai. It approaches Tokai, but connoisseurs can well distinguish the one from the other. It sells very high here (Paris.) At St. Georges there are two kinds: one of these kinds is destined exclusively to the manufacture of the wine of Wermouth, by means of an extract of wormwood, as I shall notice presently; this extract communicates the bitter taste and stomachic quality for which that wine is noted. When wine of Wermouth is manufactured out of wine of St. Georges, or Tokai, a small quantity of good extract of wormwood is added to each bottle, which is then well shaken. Such is the method of making the wine of Wermouth; for there is no vineyard of that name, nor any natural wine of that flavour and quality. Tokai, is well known by name, but few persons know it by experience. It is in truth a very fine wine, but it is not sold. The emperor of Austria owns the soil on which it is made. Her imperial majesty, has made a present to the emperor of Russia of a small part of the district wherein the Tokai grape grows; so that those two sovereigns are the sole proprietors of the spot. But presents are made to other courts of a few cases, and also to some accredited ambassadors, so that very little remains for sale: nor indeed is any of it sold, unless at the sales of the effects of persons of this description on their removal or decease. But rich as this wine is, it has its defects; for it does not well bear the fermentative process; and it is spoiled in a few days if the bottles be not filled nearly or quite full: so much so, as that you can hardly recognize it for the same wine. I understand this is not the case with the wine from grapes grown on the *summit* of the mountain. I can communicate no further particulars of this wine.

Of the Greek wines, that of *Cyprus* is in most esteem. It keeps for half a century or more. This wine has always been in request among the Apicii of modern times. It is very pleasant, but expensive; often adulterated; when pure, it is balsamic and wholesome. It has a borrachio flavour, from the leathern vessels in which it is kept. Most people would dispense with this super-added flavour if they could; but it is a mark of the genuine wine.

After Cyprus comes the wine of *Stancon*. It is more of a liqueur than that of Cyprus, and the bouquet (odour) of it, is very agreeable. There is another wine, the produce also of the island of Cyprus, the wine of Chio, which passes for nectar. The ancients sought it as ambrosia, the wine of the gods. Little of it comes to France: not more than a few small bottles of it, brought

by admirals and captains of marine, who have occasion to stop there for refreshment. There is also a Malmsey of the isle of Cyprus; musky and much esteemed. This is often sold as the wine of Syracuse. The wine of the island of Madeira, is well known and greatly esteemed in France, and with good reason: but it should be dry, with a very slight bitter, a pleasant odour, and a slight taste of pitch from the skins in which it is transported. The Malmsey-Madeira, is a delicious wine,* greatly esteemed by connoisseurs, and is very wholesome.

Of the *Spanish* wines the best, and the best known, are those of Malaga; whereof there are several kinds. They should be chosen, oily, full in the mouth, not clammy or ropy, and of a deep gold colour. There is a red Malaga, which is excellent, of a fine colour, and which keeps well. The wines of Malaga, are much esteemed in Europe; in France they are used at the desert; and are given to sick persons, and to convalescents to repair their strength; but care must be taken not to use them in excess.

As to *Port* wine, I need only say that to deserve the commendations given to it, it should be very old. The inhabitants of Great Britain consume much of it: there is a red and a white Port, but the latter is not common.†

Among the Spanish wines those of Alicante are distinguished; they are of good quality, but not so pleasant; they are too thick and heavy, of a deep red approaching to black when new. They must be frequently racked, and long kept. When bottled, however clear they are when put in, they always deposit a sediment: hence they require to be filtered when a bottle is drawn. As they grow old, their quality is improved, and their colour becomes lighter; in this state, they are pleasant and nourishing; they are restorative also, where debility has been induced by sickness or fatigue, or any circumstance that has brought on too much waste of strength. They are also stomachic; but they must be used in moderation, for they are very heady.

The *Rota* wine has the same qualities.

The wine of Zeres (Sherry)‡ is white, dry, slightly bitter, and is one of the best of the Spanish wines. It is a desert wine.

The Malmsey of the *Canarys* (Malvoisie) is preferred by all real connoisseurs, because it is light and keeps well. This is a boiled wine, made from a Muscat grape. It is stomachic in general, but bilious persons are forbidden to drink it.

* In France, where a glass or two only of these wines are drank at dinner, or at the desert, they may deserve the commendations here given: but they will not do to be used, as the English and Americans use wine.

† White Port is very common in London. It is a meagre inferior wine.

‡ Sherry when old and dry, is the very best of all the wines, if you confine yourself to half a pint. It is less acidulous than Madeira. Of Sherry the Padre Ximenes is said to be the best. Full bodied wines are never drank in France, but at the middle course of a dinner, or at the desert. They are drank as a kind of liqueur.

The Packaretti Sherry is dry and pleasant. The wine of Benicarlo is mild.*

Throughout Italy the wines are good, and the greatest part of the French grapes were originally Italian. When the Gauls had cleared the high mountains that separated ancient Gaul from Italy, and had tasted the grapes, and the juice of them on the Italian side, they incited their compatriots to make the conquest of Italy. Then the grapes of that country were propagated among the Gauls, who, in their turn, a few centuries afterward, were invaded by the people of the north, or the Normans: they made us pay dear for the wine our ancestors had drank in Italy, as well as for that which, in consequence of our conquests, we had been enabled to drink in France.

Of the Italian wines, the most esteemed is the Falernian, so much praised by Horace, and sang by J. J. Rousseau. The wine of Alba, the original site of Ancient Rome, was the first wine made by the Romans: it preserves its reputation yet. It is very pleasant, not heady, and easy of digestion. There is of it, both white and red. It is even permitted to persons indisposed, from its being not so strong as to disorder the nerves of weak patients.

Tuscany produces wine which rivals these; the Monte Fiascone.† This wine passes there for being the best of the Italian wines. I do not agree to this; for wine may have other good qualities beside that of intoxicating.

The Florence wine is a Muscat;‡ and being boiled, it has the double advantage of keeping a long time, and bearing transportation. There is great consumption of Florence wine.

The Venetian wine is excellent: though rich it is piquant.

The wines of Naples, the Lacryma Christi, and Gaeta wines, are well known. They are light and agreeable, and the odour is good.

These are all the wines with which I am acquainted as a dealer.

On the racking of wines.—The first racking should take place about the middle of March after the vintage. For this purpose the casks should be recently emptied, and rinsed with great care; scraping off all the tartar that adheres to their sides; for should any remain, it will greatly injure the quality, delicacy, and perfume of the wine meant to be put in. It is also necessary to wash the outside of the cask, and to brush off all the hard dirt and the moss that may adhere to the bottom, as well as the small fungi that are apt to form there. Nothing should be left unwashed, even to the bungs. The cask is then brimstoned; using a piece

* The Benicarlo is an inferior wine, much used to adulterate Port.

† The fine old song of Dr. Walter Pope says,
With Monte Fiascone or Burgundy wine,
To drink the king's health, as oft as I dine.

‡ Florence wine, usually imported in cases, like oil, and stoped with cotton and covered with oil, is a strong heady wine: not a Muscat as I should judge, or boiled.

of brimstone cut tapering. This should be done when the weather is perfectly dry. Before the wine is racked off into the cask, it should be rinsed with a pint of good Cogniac brandy, and then drained. Then fill it with the clear wine with a syphon or a pump; so as not to disturb the lees: bung it up with a very clean bung fixed in a clean white linen rag.

The casks thus filled, are placed on the tressels: they must be examined from time to time, and filled up, (if there be any empty space in the cask,) *with the same wine*, of the same press and vintage: any inferior wine used for the purpose, will spoil the whole, and you will lose your trouble.

At the end of six months, rack the wine again, taking all the precautions above directed. It is by a repetition of the process of racking, that wine acquires its fineness and delicacy, and at length its ripeness. When it has acquired its full flavour, it should be fined: for which purpose, take the whites of six eggs to the hogshead (piece) in the following manner. Beat up with a quart of river water the whites of six eggs: draw off three bottles of the wine: take a clean white stick, split it at the end in four pieces receding from each other; beat up the eggs and water, pour it in, and stir the wine in the cask well, with the stick thus cleft, introduced in the bung hole; but it is not necessary that the stick should quite reach to the bottom. Then, when well stirred, leave it (after being bunged up) for at least eight or ten days untouched. The fining should never be attempted but when the weather is calm and serene.*

The same remarks and directions apply to white wine, except as to the manner of fining: which is managed thus:

When the wine has been sufficiently racked, it may be rendered still clearer by fining, which improves both the taste and the colour. Take for this purpose some isinglass, wrap it in a piece of clean linen, beat it with a hammer till it parts into fine shreds:—put it in a vessel with a little rain or river water, adding water by degrees as it is imbibed by the fish-glue; add three pints of water to a common-sized ring of isinglass; this is enough for three pipes of wine. When the isinglass is dissolved, add three pints of white wine, and if you wish to keep it for the purpose of fining other casks, add to it some good brandy. Pass the whole of it through a filter of fine linen to strain off the sediment: do this a second time; then put it up in very clean bottles (nearly filled) well corked, and kept in a dry place. One bottle will be enough for a piece

* Hogshead (un piece). Milk is better fining than eggs, because it combines with the tartarous acid of the wine, which eggs do not. Half a pint of skimmed milk (or rather less) beat up with the white of an egg, is a strong fining for a quarter cask. The brewers use isinglass; and when the beer is strong they beat up with it a little fine sand, to overcome the adhesiveness of the liquor. Too much egg or too much milk, gives an unpleasant flavour. Isinglass is more uncertain as to quantity.

or hogshead of wine. Use this in the same manner as directed for fining the red wines, substituting the solution of isinglass for whites of eggs. You must not forget to admit a little air by means of a vent peg.

If, contrary to expectation, the wine should fail of being clear after having been fined in the manner above directed, boil a quart (pinte) of milk or cream, which when boiled must be permitted to cool. Skim off the skin, or buttery matter that will appear on the top: pour it into your wine, which will soon be clarified.*

If it be red wine that continues dull, take some clean white un-sized blotting paper.† Roll it up so that you can put it in loosely at the bung-hole. Of this put in ten or a dozen sheets. Let it thus remain till the paper sinks to the bottom, and the wine will be fined; even if it should be thick and ropy (gros.)

Several other methods are prescribed for the same purpose, but as I have never employed them in my own cellar, and as some of them are objectionable as being unwholesome, I think it better to omit any further remark on these receipts.

As I have spoken of turbid wine, it may be proper to point out the causes of this malady. Some of them depend on us, others are not under our command. For example, want of care in racking the wine may powerfully contribute to this defect—if during the first year we do not draw off our wines from the thick lees—or, if after having drawn them off, we neglect to fill up the casks at least once a month—if in such case the wines are stored away—especially in a warm cellar in summer time—if as often as you want wine you draw it from a cask and leave it thus, only part full for a long time, especially with the spile out—all these causes will suffice to render your wine foul. It is true then, that many of the faults depend on ourselves. But it is fair also to say that very often in spite of all the care we take, the accidents in question will happen.

Sometimes the season opposes the due combination of the constituent parts of the wine; so in very hot and dry years, the essential oil is in over or under proportion to the must; and the oily, aqueous, and sugary particles do not enter into complete chemical union; in this case, the fermentation that is to produce this union, is slow and imperfect. A similar inconvenience results from very cold or very rainy seasons, which equally tend to prevent the in-

* In Philadelphia it is not unusual to put about a table spoonfull of salt in a hogshead of Madeira; I am not aware in what way it acts, but I know it contributes to take away ropiness in malt liquor.

† Papier gris, sans odeur. Clean, white, fine writing paper is better; because it contains a small quantity of glue, and also a small quantity of alum. To fine strong ale, put in at the bung hole, a sheet of paper; let it unfold inside of the cask: sprinkle on it some clean white sand, to sink it. By degrees it will fall to the bottom and the sediment with it.

testine motion that combines the oil, the sugar, the water and the acid, into a vinous liquor.

So soon as you perceive a tendency in the wine to turn thick and turbid, the following symptoms will also appear: when you pierce a cask to draw a glass of the wine to taste it, it drops slowly, and does not spin out in a stream like wine in good order: on tasing it, you feel something thick and oily that fills the palate, not that lively stimulant sensation which is produced by well managed, generous wine. On these symptoms appearing, beside the means I have mentioned, you must again rack off the wine.

Then take an ounce of cream of tartar, dissolve it in a quart of the wine thus racked off, shaking the bottle well; (perhaps two quarts of wine instead of one would be a better proportion because cream of tartar is of difficult solution.) To this mixture, add half a pint of good Montpelier (or Nantz) brandy, and also a few quarts of good wine of the same year, and add them to the turbid wine. This method will probably cure the disorder in a short time, but it is necessary also, to drink off the wine without delay, because there is danger of its falling again into the same state.

On bottling wine. When a cask of wine is tapped for bottling, gently raise the opposite end about two inches by means of a few pieces of brick or wood. The cask may be bottled off by means either of a cock, a spigot and faucet, or a siphon. The augur ought not to be larger than the tube to be inserted. In boring the hole, take care to hold it in a straight direction, and directly in the middle of a stave, not between two staves. When in boring it at the bottom you perceive the wine to ooze out, do not go on to bore it quite through to the wine, but take the augur clean out the hole, wipe it, and drive the thin remaining part of the stave inward by forcing the spigot or cock, on the outside; in this way the wine will be less disturbed, and the cock will fit tighter. In filling the bottles, incline them a little, so that the wine may not enter with too much motion and violence. When a bottle is three parts filled, half turn the cock, or half stop the siphon to fill it up, and in meantime the bottle last filled may be corked.

It is a point of the first necessity to be attended to, that the bottles be well rinsed. No care will make up for this neglect. For this purpose make use of small shot, of coarse sand, or a small chain, or all of them. When the bottle seems clean, blow in it, and smell if there remain any musty odour. Even when there is no bad odour the bottle should nevertheless be rinsed several times in clean water.

Do not quite fill the bottles; leave a space (about two inches) between the cork and the wine, otherwise the bottle will be broken. Never use a bottle that is starred, or that has any blemish. It is false economy to hesitate for a moment about purchasing the

most perfect bottles, and paying the best price for them; otherwise you risk both bottle and wine. For this reason also, examine the necks to see that the corks are likely to fit tight and regularly. For the same reason, employ only new, well cut, soft corks; reject those that have been used, and have lost their elasticity, or that have dusty holes, and cracks in them, or that are in any way defective or rotten. You can never cure wine that tastes of the cork. To cork your bottles well, you must employ force, with an oak hammer, having a broad surface: the cork must be driven almost entirely within the neck of the bottle. In corking the bottles, hold them over a tub, that if by accident a bottle should break, the wine may not be lost. When corked, dip or smear the top of the bottle and cork in Spanish wax. If the wine be suspected of subsequent fermentation, tie down the cork with strings, or wire it down. (In England they have a machine expressly for forcing the corks into bottles, and every bottle in the process of making it at the glass house, is compressed at the neck, so that the cork on entering may swell out after it has passed the narrow part of the neck where the glass has been a little compressed by the workmen, while red hot and soft.) The corks are better for being previously boiled in clear water.* If the wine be intended to be kept long in bottles, they should be dipped in a mixture of pitch, rosin, and a very little wax; not enough to soften the composition, but to give it tenacity merely. If these precautions be not taken, and air is permitted to find a vent, however small, either the bottle bursts, or the wine turns flat and sour.

It will be well however, to give directions for the most approved composition for waxing corks. Take by weight equal parts of pitch and rosin, (arcanson) with three fourths of a part of tallow; melt them gradually together in a varnished or glazed pot of earthen ware, stir them well over a moderate fire till they are all incorporated: then increase the heat till the mixture begins to boil up: be sure to take it off the fire before it boils over, otherwise your mixture will be apt to inflame and produce danger.

When the ebullition has subsided, and all is melted, stir in a little red ochre, yellow ochre, Spanish white, or lampblack: if you use the latter you must add a little more tallow. This depends on the kind of colour you wish to give to your cement. (Bricks dried and powdered very fine, will prove a good addition to the cement, in lieu of the ochres and white.)

When the cement is well mixed let it cool a little—wipe the top of the neck clean and dry—smear the composition over the cork, and under the edge of the neck, taking care that it sticks well—let it cool set upright. Keep the pot on a moderate fire, so as to have the cement in a state sufficiently fluid but not too hot: it is useless to employ it if too cool, and it will not answer so well if too hot.

* And dried afterward. c.

Manner of arranging the wine in the cellar when it is bottled.

When the bottles are filled, corked, cemented and sealed, they must be arranged in succession in the cases. This is the method to be pursued:

Under the first row, strew three inches thick of fine, dry sand, well sifted, to get rid of small pebbles; for if any such remain, the weight will occasion the bottle that rests upon them to break, and this will produce a displacing, and disarrangement of the whole bin. Level the sand, and arrange on it your bottles; the first range being about a dozen. The necks should be placed on that side next the wall, two inches from the wall: take care that the bottoms of your bottles are in a regular line, ranging evenly with each other. Put one lath upon the belly of the bottle, and two laths upon the neck. Place the next range in an opposite direction, the corks outward and the bottoms inward, taking care that the belly of the second range of bottles does not rest on the belly of the first range, but upon the laths and between the necks. Continue this operation as high as you please, always observing to keep your line even and regular, no one bottle projecting beyond another; for this would not only be unsightly, but would also cause inequality of pressure. If your sand be fine and well sifted—if you have used no cracked, starred, or blemished bottles—if your laths are sound—you may rest assured that you will be free from accidental breakage in stowing the bottles. Some persons, instead of laths, use whips of straw, and find them serve a good purpose. Indeed I should recommend them in preference to laths.

Such are *Beauwillier's* remarks and directions: it may not be amiss to add some observations on the English and American practises.

As to the English: they bottle all their wine, white as well as red: although from great care in arching their cellars, grouting the brick work of the arch, and lining with board the inside of their bins, their cellars are dry, yet they are only so dry as a moist atmosphere will permit them to be. Wine merchants usually use stoves in their cellars, with thermometers to keep up the heat about 65° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. In that damp and variable climate, red port, the common beverage after dinner, is apt to lose its colour, and with its colour its flavour, which resides more in the *skin* than the *juice* of the grape. The red port is kept four years in the cask, and two or three in bottles, before it is considered in high perfection. Indeed it is a superior wine at good tables to what is usually met with here in America. To make up superior port for the best class of London consumers, good wine, not much brandied while in Portugal, (where they use nasty Portuguese or Spanish brandy, ill flavoured, ill distilled, and somewhat acid) is doctored in the wine merchant's cellar. To a pipe of mild high flavoured port, about two gallons of the finest cogniac brandy is put. If, also, about five

gallons of sound claret or hermitage be added, the flavour is greatly improved. These should be put in after the fining, which in England is always white of eggs. The cask being stirred, or the wine in it well stirred to mix the ingredients, it is left to settle: generally the wine is over fined. I suspect the whites of ten eggs beat up with a gallon of the wine, is enough for a pipe. The hoops and the whole cask should be well examined to see that there is no starting, no pin hole. In three or four years the wine will be fit to bottle: in a year and a half after that, it will be fit to drink. Port wine is not improved by keeping, after six years old.

Port wine will improve like white wine in richness and mellowness, by being kept in a cask, but it will lose its peculiar flavour, and its colour also; and become in taste and appearance like some of the dry Greek wines. Hence it is better for being bottled according to the English practice; provided due precaution be observed. The English never seal their corks: they depend on the clip in the neck, which forms a kind of strait, through which the cork has to pass, and then swell out. If the cork be good, and the wine kept on its side, no air can get in or out.

In decanting, they use a muslin strainer in a silver frame, and a silver antiguglar to supply air to the inside, while the wine is decanted. They never decant within a wine glass remaining in the bottle. They never cool port wine: they often expose it to warm air before the fire. All these practices are the results of experience; but they are more applicable to coloured and red, than to white wines.

White wines, are best kept in the cask, upon their own lees, in a warm dry place. They are better fined with skimmed milk, than with eggs; some persons think that after fining with milk, the wine is apt to grow turbid in bad weather; I doubt this: the ullage is usually the richest and fullest part of the wine. There is no danger of white wines losing colour; but they ought not to be kept in new casks. All the French wines are too thin to keep in the cask; they would run into acid fermentation. A gallon of fine brandy to the quarter cask of Teneriffe or Madeira, improves the quality, if the wine be thin, for it prevents this tendency to acid fermentation, and causes the tartar to subside. The tartar of wine crystallizes and subsides much sooner in wood than in glass. In wood it adheres to the side of the cask; in glass it cannot catch hold. All new wines are unwholesome, intoxicating, and sickening, not from the spirit they contain, but from the tartar they contain; they never become full, oily, silky, till all the tartar has crystallized on the sides of the cask. Hence, for white wines, milk that decomposes and is decomposed by the acid of tartar, is better for fining than the white of eggs; and notwithstanding the objection already noticed, I think it preferable on the whole. Too much egg gives unpleasant flavour. No Madeira or Teneriffe, should be tapped under three years after fining.

A little salt is deemed a preservative against ropiness. To thin Madeira or to Teneriffe, add a gallon of malmsey to the quarter cask.

To prove that however the French may excel in cookery, they do not despise English dishes, I shall now present to your readers, the receipts given by Beauvilliers for making *Plumbuting*; *Woulche rabbette*, (or *lapin gallois*) and *meche de patetesse*; which phrases being translated and compared with the receipts, are found, after due investigation; to be plumb-pudding, toasted cheese, and mashed potatoes. It would have been more fair, had the French connoisseurs who borrow our dishes, borrowed also the names of them. Rosbif, bifeck, and plumbouding, are common appellations: and I well remember over a coffee-house at Paris, a notice to passengers that they might be served with; with Ponge a la rom et a la rac a l'Anglais; thereby meaning, rum punch, and arrack punch. But in return, our good ladies and men cooks, who do us the honour of instructing us in the noble art of cookery, are not behind hand in disfiguring French names and French dishes. Hence we read (that is those who like the writer are amateurs of good living) of Cullis, and Leessons, and Beshmells, with many other strange misnames of equal importance, that puzzle the dictionary hunters to trace to their meaning. I wish that the laudable practice adopted in Paris were extended to London, Philadelphia and New-York. I omit Boston, because the good Yankees are fully satisfied with their national Choulder. The practice I allude to is this. A committee from the fraternity of cooks, some years ago, met, and applied to the Medical department of Paris to join them in the laudable design of publishing a truly scientific book on cookery. The cooks expunged all articles that did not contribute to richness of flavour: the medical committee expunged all the articles which they deemed deleterious and unwholesome. I believe the book was published under the title of *La Cuisine Medicale*, or *Cuisine de Sante*, or some such appropriate appellation.

The following is the process given by Beauvilliers for making Welsh rabbit, Woulche rabbette, or *Lapin Gallois*.

Take slices of bread toasted of a fine brown colour: pare the rind off some Gloucester cheese, cut it into small dice, put it in a sauce-pan to dissolve with a very little water; add a little Cayenne pepper: when dissolved spread it on the hot toast; brown it with a salamander held at a little distance over it, and serve it up with mustard and salt.

We see, however, that if Beauvilliers has put the name in masquerade, he has not spoiled or disguised the process.

PHILOIN.

ART. III.—*Delaplaine's Repository of the Lives and Portraits of Distinguished Americans*. Vol. 1.—Part 2. Philadelphia, 1817. pp. 115.

WE have heretofore had occasion to express an opinion of the general plan of Mr. Delaplaine's *Repository*, and to notice

the imperfections of his first Number, considered as a specimen of the whole work.* From the judgment then pronounced, subsequent events, and further reflection, have not induced us to depart.

We were at that time led to remark upon the disadvantages necessarily incurred by every production of human genius whose appearance has been preceded by too early and too pompous an annunciation, and, upon the imprudence of promising too much, which inevitably causes the performance to seem too little. There were some readers to whom our strictures, we are aware, appeared too severe, and who inferred from our decided disapprobation of the production then under observation, that we were hostile to the scheme of a national book of biography, such as it is Mr. Delaplaine's intention to give to the public. We have, however, on the contrary, always conceived it to be highly desirable that the lives of the eminent men of our country should be recorded, together with graphic memorials of their personal features, and a large portion of this Magazine has accordingly been devoted to original biographies of distinguished Americans.

But it is very evident that the value of biography, particularly of those men whose individual reputation gives a tone to the national character, is too important to be with propriety abandoned to periodical miscellanies, whose editors cannot be expected to possess such opportunities of collecting accurate and detailed information, nor such command of pecuniary means, as would be requisite for the production of a biography, on the perfect authenticity of which there might be implicit reliance, while in style and graphic embellishments, it might afford a favourable specimen of the condition of authorship and the arts in America. Such a work is certainly a *desideratum*, the public taste calls for it, and public liberality would amply remunerate its author. All candid, well disposed critics, would joyfully hail its appearance, and we trust none more so than ourselves; but it behoves all those who may be instrumental in pronouncing the judgments of public taste, to be especially careful not to acknowledge the *desideratum* is obtained, until a work shall be produced in all the essential requisites, such as it will gratify our American pride to exhibit to Europe as *truly national*.

In common with all the friends of American literature, we read Mr. Delaplaine's *proposals* with great pleasure, and anticipated from the public spirit and enterprize of that gentleman, such a book as we had desired to see. We, of course, expected that talents of the first order would be employed upon its various parts; that the typography would be equal to any previous specimen; the engravings superior to any the American school had yet produced; that the whole performance would be exclusively *American*; and, as by far, the most important requisite, that the lives

*Am. Mag. Sept. 1816.

or "*sketches*," as they are called, would be written by some gentleman of such established reputation and respectability, as would ensure a style, if not elegant, at least chaste and classic, and an accuracy of statement both unswerving and unquestionable. These anticipations were justified not only by the language of the proposals issued by Mr. Delaplaine; the high price demanded, and the length of time occupied in preparation, but also by the due consideration of what is essentially necessary to form a national biography of any utility or value.

The *Repository*, however, we are constrained to say, has fallen very far below the expectations so justly entertained. Biography, like history, ceases to be valuable when its authenticity is questionable; and anonymous biography as well as anonymous history, must always be of dubious veracity. A fatal objection, therefore, to the usefulness of the book, is found in this circumstance; that the names of the authors of the "lives" are studiously concealed. For not only is there room thus left to doubt, whether the writers are our countrymen or foreigners, residing here or in England, which possibility of doubt, of itself destroys the perfect nationality of the book; but a more fatal evil flows from this concealment; there can be no secure nor confident reliance on the truth of narratives, resting on the credit not only of no name of respectability, but of no name at all. It is inconsistent with the plainest rules of evidence and common sense, to give implicit belief to statements whose authors are unwilling to stamp them with their own characters, and to support them by the pledge of their own reputations.

As materials for future historians, therefore, or authentic sources of information to the rising generation, and to foreigners, the *Repository* can only hold a rank with the innumerable sketches of lives and characters, eulogistic and detractory, with which our periodical publications and daily papers, from Maine to Georgia, are constantly teeming. We do not say there is a single fact misstated in all the "lives" in the *Repository*. We hope there is not; the views taken of every one of the characters are such as are most gratifying to our national pride, and therefore they find willing credence with the generality of readers. But on whose testimony do they rest? By what circumstance are they entitled to more credit than the assertions of anonymous paragraphists in the daily prints? We can perceive no distinction but in the large neat type, the wide margins, the wire wove paper, and the correspondent magnificence of price exacted from subscribers. Nor can this great fault be corrected in the future numbers, unless the reputation of a respectable man is pledged for the fidelity of the statements. Then, indeed, we might declare to our sons and to Europe, these narratives are true, and implicit confidence may be placed in them, for a man of honour who had a reputation at stake, and had opportunities of investigation and inquiry, has

given them publicity as the result of his examination, and has pledged his character for their veracity.

Why this course has not been pursued, we are at a loss to conceive, but there cannot be a doubt that such a pledge is necessary to make a national biography at all desirable. What is it that gives value and usefulness to the lately published memoir of the Life of Patrick Henry? undoubtedly the sanction of Mr. Wirt's name, which stamps it with an authenticity above cavil or suspicion, and will transmit it to posterity as an unquestionable document of modern history. If, however, the "Sketches of the Life and character of Patrick Henry," had been given to the world anonymously, if Mr. Wirt had been unwilling to support it with his name, how little would have been its comparative value, and how short its comparative duration! No historian would then have been willing to use it as a material for his work, to interweave its assertions with his own, and to risk his own reputation upon its veracity. "Mutata nomine," the same observation applies to the *Repository*; as an historical document, or as a material for future historians, it is absolutely valueless and useless. The *desideratum*, therefore, is yet to be supplied either by an improvement in Mr. Delaplaine's plan, or by another more judiciously executed, and which we must hope is yet to appear. Surely there is no paucity of talent in our country; there can be no difficulty in finding men of suitable minds who are willing to be editors of periodical biographies as well as periodical miscellanies; have our writers all become so modest that they would "blush to hear the obstreperous trump of fame?" or is it necessary to look for them in the ranks of professional life, where a few hours hastily devoted to liberal studies, would seem a transgression against professional duties? We trust not. We believe, and firmly too, that there are men of merit, talent, industry, who are ambitious of a literary reputation, and want only opportunity to ensure the acquisition of it; who for very moderate compensation, would write openly, not anonymously, ably, and truly, who are, in short, in every way fitted to conduct the work now under consideration, with honour to themselves and to their country. If such were employed, all might be accomplished towards the *national* biography so much desired, and until such men are employed it will never be accomplished. For men who can write well have no occasion to conceal their names; men who have written well scarce ever wish to hide themselves, and those who are afraid or ashamed to acknowledge what they have written, are seldom such as ought to have written at all.

But even should the gentleman who wrote the "lives," avow himself, and though he should be a man of such weight of character, as to establish by the testimony of his word, the truth of all that he has written, still the performance must be considered lame and imperfect in many respects. Thus we are told in the life of Mr. Jefferson, for instance, that he was born April 2, 1743;

became governor of Virginia in 1779; went to Europe in 1784; returned in 1789; elected vice-president in 1797; and president in 1801; &c. this is all well for an outline, but in the filling up of the picture, we look in vain for characteristic anecdotes, familiar letters, habits of private life, and all that in biography usually makes us intimately acquainted with its subject, and causes us to love or admire or wonder at him, or shows us how little he deserved to be loved or wondered at. We do not speak in reference to the life of Mr. Jefferson in particular, the remark is applicable to all; we are in every one favoured only with a few dates of public events, which could be as easily found in the newspapers of the day, and the sketch is completed with unvaried and indiscriminate panegyric, all very true and well earned, we doubt not, but so uniform and generally applied, that the different pictures of certainly very different men look as much alike as the portraits of Gay's painter, who drew all his *likenesses* from the busts of Venus and Apollo. This fault we know is difficult to correct; to procure private letters for publication is no easy matter, and to obtain a knowledge of characteristic anecdotes and habits of private life, requires a great deal of inquiry and very patient investigation, and a just delineation and discrimination of character, calls for an acquaintance with human nature not often nor easily found. But certainly there need not have been so deplorable a deficiency in this respect.

Having thus given our opinion of the *Repository*, as far as its *utility* is in question, it only remains to consider it as a specimen of American talent and American art.

Without entering into a minute criticism on the various demerits of the different "Lives," we shall think it sufficient to say, that the style is throughout inferior to that of all the standard American works. In various degrees it is laboured, stiff, and puerile; in the life of Jefferson particularly so; in those of Clinton, King and Ames, less so; and in those of Fulton and Jay, more respectable, because more easy and unaffected. But generally speaking, not such writing as we can consent to hold up to the world as a sample of what American talent can produce and American taste approve. How large a subscription Mr. Delaplaine has, we know not, nor how far it is within his power or inclination to pay for the employment of first rate abilities; certain it is, however, the author or authors of these lives, either had not the power or had not the leisure to polish their compositions into even a moderate degree of elegance.

With respect to the engravings, we feel the more disappointed because this part of the undertaking being under Mr. Delaplaine's peculiar care, it was to be expected that perfect satisfaction would have been given in its execution. The engravings, however, are not favourable specimens of the state of the fine arts in our country. Those of Clinton, Jay and Ames, were published long ago, and have been in all the print-shops in the country for years; they

were well enough executed for furniture prints, and with neatly gilt frames would serve to decorate a chamber. But they are indifferently executed engravings, and very inferior to later performances by the same artists, nor was it expected from Mr. Delaplaine's proposals that his portraits were to be the refuse of print-shops; the public had a right to look for engravings carefully executed, and expressly for the *Repository*. The picture of Mr. Randolph would have been rejected by any of our editors of periodical magazines, or if received by them would have been called a disgrace to their pages. That of Mr. Jefferson is the best, and is, in fact, very tolerable; but unfortunately, it is the only one not executed by an American artist. And even that and Mr. Fulton's, although the best, are very inferior to what they ought and might have been; they do not, in the least, excel the numerous engraved likenesses from time to time published in the different periodical magazines, which were wholly American in their production.

On the whole, therefore, notwithstanding our sincere wishes for Mr. Delaplaine's success, and a still remaining hope that he will, by avoiding the repetition of errors, finally bring his work to a state of perfection, we are obliged to protest against the *nationality* claimed for his book, and to declare in the name of American taste, and for the honour of American literature, that the *Repository* is a very insufficient attempt to supply the *desideratum*, a national biography, and an equally inadequate example of the authorship and graphic art in America.

ART. IV.—*Notes on a Journey in America, from the Coast of Virginia to the Territory of Illinois. With proposals for the establishment of a colony of English.* By M. Birkbeck: author of *Notes on a Tour in France*. Philadelphia. Published by Caleb Richardson. 1817.

THERE are few works of the day that have given us so much pleasure, as this little journal of Mr. Birkbeck. The liberality and honest feeling displayed in his observations, and the additional circumstance of his being a *candid English traveller and author*, will secure to this short, and we may add, singular production, a favourable reception from every American reader. For ourselves, we can only say, that we wish it may be the commencement of a long series of reparations, that are due from the travellers of other nations, to abused and insulted America. It is the production of a plain, sensible, and *practical* man, who did not look for a corrupt though polished society; who could be pleased with new institutions peculiar to a new country; and who not expecting an Utopia, of course was not disappointed. America since her existence as an independent nation, has seen few such travellers: Government agents form the mass of those, who give information to enlightened Europe on the subject of this country. What effect their publications have had, is too well

known to our countrymen; particularly to those who were abroad, before the termination of the late war. The countrymen of Mr. Birkbeck have suffered not a little, from their ignorance with regard to this country, a fault, strictly speaking, not imputable to the English as a nation, but to their governors. The fact that travellers, as well as reviewers, have been, and still are, political engines in England, is every day receiving some accession of proof. And as America seems to be the favourite topic of abuse, we have no doubt that the present production of Mr. Birkbeck, will meet with but little mercy from certain reviewers who are "lords of the ascendant," in England. Those philosophers of Europe, who have discovered in this country a tendency to "belittle" her productions, who hold the opinion, that mind as well as body, degenerates in America, will also be little disposed to agree with Mr. Birkbeck. And the ministers of any country, desirous of stopping emigration, will show still less favour. The following picture of English yeomanry, once the boast of their country, who thought themselves, and who really were, the only free subjects in the world, exhibits a revolting scene to those who have heretofore looked at England with some respect; who cannot forget that she was the country of Hampden and Sidney; a country with whom the early feelings of many among us are associated, by language, literature, and a certain resemblance between some of the best features of our respective constitutions, as they appear upon paper. "A nation with half its population supported by alms, or poor rates, and one-fourth of its income derived from taxes, many of which are dried up in their sources, or speedily becoming so, must teem with emigrants from one end to the other: and, for such as myself, who have had 'nothing to do with the laws, but to obey them,' it is quite reasonable and just to secure a timely retreat from the approaching crisis, either of anarchy or despotism. An English farmer, to which class I had the honour to belong, is in possession of the same rights and privileges as the *villicens* of old time, and exhibits a suitable political character. He has no voice in the appointment of the legislature, unless he happens to possess a freehold of forty shillings a year; and he is then expected to vote in the interest of his landlord. He has no concern with public affairs, excepting as a tax-payer, a parish officer, or a militia man. He has no right at a county-meeting, unless the word *inhabitants*, should find its way into the sheriff's invitation; in this case he may show his face among the nobility, clergy, and freeholders:—a felicity which once occurred to myself, when the *inhabitants* of Surrey were invited to assist the gentry in crying down the income tax.

"Thus having no elective franchise, an English farmer, can scarcely be said to have a political existence, and political duties he has none; except such, as under existing circumstances, would inevitably consign him to the special guardianship of the secretary of state for the home department.

"In exchanging the condition of an English farmer for that of an American proprietor, I expect to suffer many inconveniences; but I am willing to make a great sacrifice of present ease, were it merely for the sake of obtaining in the decline of life, an exemption from that wearisome solicitude about pecuniary affairs, from which even the affluent find no refuge in England; and, for my children, a career of enterprise and wholesome family connexions, in a society whose institutions are favourable to virtue; and at last the consolation of leaving them efficient members of a flourishing public-spirited, energetic community; where the insolence of wealth and the servility of pauperism, between which in England there is scarcely an interval remaining, are alike unknown."

Happy America—where the many are not created for the few—where *legitimacy* has no worshippers. Now, the only country where man attains the dignity of his nature, and where he dares to show that he is sensible of the blessing of being free. The quotation we have made, ought always to be present to the minds of the American public, not only, as it affords a practical proof of the fact, that man is the creature of habit, and that political institutions alone render him whatever he seems to be, but also, as a proof of a more important truth, that a free people ought never, on the plea of *necessity*, to suffer the management of their affairs to be taken out of their own hands.

The comparative view of persons, considered by Mr. Birkbeck as belonging to the same class in society, in the respective countries, we shall quote as a proof that facts even cannot be relied on, when certain ends are to be accomplished by their publication.

"It has struck me as we have passed along from one poor hut to another, among the rude inhabitants of this infant state, that travellers in general who judge by comparison, are not qualified to form a fair estimate of these lonely settlers. Let a stranger make his tour through England in a course remote from the great roads, and going to no inns, take such entertainment only as he might find in the cottages of labourers, he would have as much cause to complain of the rudeness of the people, and more of their drunkenness and profligacy than in these backwoods: although in England the poor are a part of society whose institutions are matured by the experience of two thousand years. But in their manners and morals, but especially in their knowledge and proud independence of mind, they exhibit a contrast so striking, that he must be a *petit maitre* traveller, or ill-informed of the character and circumstances of his poor countrymen; or deficient in good and manly sentiment, who would not rejoice to transplant into these boundless regions of freedom, the millions he has left behind him grovelling in ignorance and want."

ART. V.—*Bingley's Useful Knowledge; or an Account of the various Productions of Nature, Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal, which are generally employed for the use of Man.* 3 vols. 12mo. London, Baldwin & Co. 1817. (In press by A. Small, Philadelphia.) (From the Edinburgh Magazine.)

THIS work well entitles its author to rank among the friends of youth. It is really what it pretends to be, a repository of useful knowledge, containing a clear and interesting account of many of those productions which are useful to man in the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdoms.

That part of it which treats of animals has been executed on a plan similar to that of Mavor, Bigland, and others; and the subjects of the two first parts are to be found in systems of mineralogy and botany; but there is no work with which we are acquainted, in which so much valuable information in all these departments is comprised within the same extent. There is, we are persuaded, no class of readers to whom this book will not be both amusing and instructive. To those who have already studied the subjects in larger works, it will serve to recall the particulars which are most interesting, and may be advantageously employed as a book of reference. Those, on the other hand, who have not entered upon such inquiries, will find a great deal to gratify their curiosity conveyed in an agreeable manner. To young persons, especially young ladies, who have seldom an opportunity of studying large systems of natural history, we would particularly recommend this work. If it were read in small portions daily, and an account of the pupils progress rendered, either in writing or in conversation, the young would soon be found to have acquired more information on the topics of which it treats, than many who have perused larger systems in a vague and cursory manner. Besides affording much information—as it is arranged on the plan of the best systems, it will insensibly accustom the mind to the classifications of natural history, and thereby prepare the reader for the study of more extensive works.

We must not, however, forbear to mention some slight defects, which we would much wish to see supplied, whenever it comes to another edition. In addition to the general index, there should be a separate index to each volume. In the first volume, only some of the families of minerals are enumerated, and for no other reason than that the Table might all be contained in one page. Another defect in the same part of the work is, that little is said of what are called compound rocks, or even of the different soils; and nothing at all of what every one has often occasion to hear mentioned, we mean the manner in which the earth is supposed to have been formed. Now we think that it would be interesting, and at the same time easy, to give a short account of these rocks, and above all of the different kinds of soils, and also to give some idea of what is meant by the theories of the earth. Another subject which we should have expected to see noticed, is fossil re-

mains. In this there is much to interest and amuse; and it certainly falls within the author's plan. All these things would add little to the size, while they would greatly increase the value of the publication. It is proper also to remark, that the author might have taken more frequent occasion than he has done to impress on the minds of his readers the appearances of wisdom and goodness which are so often to be met with in the works of nature. In books intended for the use of the young, this is a duty that ought never to be omitted; and the performance of it constitutes one great excellence in the writings of Bigland and Mavor. Of the style and manner we cannot give a better idea, than by making an extract almost at random, which may be considered a fair specimen of what the book contains.

"The common pear is a well-known garden fruit, derived from an English stock, the wild pear tree (*Pyrus communis*), which grows in hedges and thickets in Somersetshire and Sussex. It would be an endless task to describe the different known varieties of the cultivated pear. Some of these are very large, and others extremely small: some have a rich and luscious flavour, and others, as the iron pear, are so hard and disagreeable to the taste, as to be absolutely unfit to eat. Pears are chiefly used in deserts; and one or two of the kinds are stewed with sugar, baked, or preserved in syrup.

"The fermented juice of pears is called perry, and is prepared nearly in the same manner as that of apples is for cider. The greatest quantities of perry are made in Worcestershire and Herefordshire. The Squash, the Oldfield, and the Barland perry are esteemed the best. Many of the dealers in champagne wine are said to use perry to a great extent in the adulteration of it: and indeed, really good perry is little inferior in flavour or quality to champagne.

"Of the wood of the pear tree, which is light, smooth, compact, and of a yellowish colour, carpenters' and joiners' tools are usually made, as well as the common kinds of flat rulers, and measuring scales. It is also used for picture frames that are to be stained black. The leaves impart a yellow dye, and are sometimes employed to communicate a green colour to blue cloth."

ART. VI.—*Gypsies.*

COWPER was such an accurate observer of human nature, and so simple in his descriptions, that his poetry will never be out of fashion, until the eye is weary of seeing the beauties of creation, and the heart of feeling the varied emotions which natural scenes excite. We admire Hogg's description of the Scottish gypsies, when he asks,

"Hast thou not poted on the bye-way side,
Where aged saughs lean o'er the lazy tide,
A vagrant crew, far straggled through the glade,
With trifles busied, or in slumber laid;
Their children lolling round them on the grass,
Or pestering with their sports the patient ass?
—The wrinkled bedlame there you may espy,
And ripe young maiden with the glossy eye,—

Men in their prime,—and striplings dark and dun,—
 Scathed by the storm and freckled with the sun:
 Their swarthy hue and mantle's flowing fold,
 Bespeak the remnant of a race of old:
 Strange are their annals!—list, and mark them well—
 For thou hast much to hear and I to tell."

Every one, who has observed the gambols of children, will be ready to think, that he can see the sturdy little urchins of these gypsies plucking hairs from the tail of 'the patient ass' to make themselves snares, or tying a bush to it, that they may have the pleasure of laughing at his attempt to run away from the annoyance. On the same subject, Leyden has given a flowing description, which is beautiful, indeed; but which rather gives you an idea of a fancy piece, than of a picture drawn from life. He sings in strains mellifluous,

"On Yeta's banks the vagrant gypsies place
 Their turf-built cots; a sun-burnt swarthy race!
 From Nubian realms their tawny line they bring,
 And their brown chieftain vaunts the name of king:
 With loitering steps from town to town they pass,
 Their lazy dames rocked on the panniered ass,
 From pilfered roots, or nauseous carrion fed,
 By hedge-rows green they strew the leafy bed,
 While scarce the cloak of tawdry red conceals
 The fine-turned limbs, which every breeze reveals;
 Their bright black eyes through silken lashes shine,
 Around their necks their raven tresses twine;
 But chilling damps, and dews of night, impair
 Its soft sleek gloss, and tan the bosom bare.
 Adroit the lines of palmistry to trace,
 Or read the damsel's wishes in her face,
 Her hoarded silver store they charm away,
 A pleasing debt, for promised wealth to pay.
 But, in the lonely barn, from towns remote,
 The pipe and bladder opes its screaming throat,
 To aid the revels of the noisy rout,
 Who wanton dance, or push the cups about:
 Then for their paramours the maddening brawl,
 Shrill, fierce, and frantic, echoes round the hall.
 No glimmering light to rage supplies a mark,
 Save the red firebrand, hissing through the dark;
 And oft the beams of morn, the peasants say,
 The blood-stained turf, and new-formed graves, display.
 Fell race, unworthy of the Scotian name!"

We accuse neither of these bards of plagiarism; but we have neither forgotten, nor ceased to love, that part of 'the Task,' in which the author says,

"I see a column of slow rising smoke
 O'ertop the lofty wood, that skirts the wild.
 A vagabond and useless tribe there eat
 Their miserable meal. A kettle, alung

Between two poles upon a stick transverse,
 Receives the morsel—flesh obscene of dog,
 Or vermin, or at best of cock purloin'd
 From his accustomed perch. Hard-faring race!
 They pick their fuel out of ev'ry hedge,
 Which, kindled with dry leaves, just saves unquench'd
 The spark of life. The sportive wind blows wide
 Their flutt'ring rags, and shows a tawny skin
 The vellum of the pedigree they claim.
 Great skill have they in palmistry, and more
 To conjure clean away the gold they touch,
 Conveying worthless dross into its place;
 Loud when they beg, dumb only when they steal.
 Strangel! that a creature rational, and cast
 In human mould, should brutalize by choice
 His nature; and, though capable of arts,
 By which the world might profit, and himself,
 Self-banish'd from society, prefer
 Such squalid sloth to honourable toil!
 Yet even these, though feigning sickness oft,
 They swathe the forehead, drag the limping limb,
 And vex their flesh with artificial sores,
 Can change their whine into a mirthful note,
 When safe occasion offers; and with dance,
 And music of the bladder and the bag,
 Beguile their woes, and make the woods resound.
 Such health and gayety of heart enjoy
 The houseless rovers of the sylvan world;
 And, breathing wholesome air, and wand'ring much,
 Need other physic none to heal th' effects
 Of loathsome diet, penury, and cold."

We doubt not that our readers have often wished for a minute account of these strange people, of whom every Irishman and Scotchman has much to say, for the amusement of his American friends; but of whom scarcely one can give any satisfactory history. In our country, we have seen, now and then, a solitary travelling tinker, with a pair of saddle-bags over his shoulders, full of the necessary implements for repairing old kettles and pewter basins: we have seen, too, mules enough: and in the good city of Philadelphia, we have been amused with a little ass, no larger than a stout ram, attached to the little vehicle of "a needy knife grinder;" but a clan of tinkers, a troop of gypsies mounted, with or without saddles, on the long-eared race, never visited one of our western glens. The half civilized Indian tribes, which still remain in some portions of our country, and especially in New England, come the nearest to the description of the Scottish gypsies. A clan of them occupy a place called Mohegan, in the county of New-London, in the state of Connecticut. They are rendered incapable of selling their land, or they would have exchanged it long ago, for cider. Their territory is but miserably cultivated, because they despise toil, and spend the warm months in wander-

ing through the country. Not unfrequently, two or three families stroll about in company, headed by some gigantic, tawny sachem, who is followed 'in Indian file,' by the younger men, their *squaws* and children. A blanket is generally thrown over the shoulders of each person, to conceal a few tattered garments, and to cover a young child, who is laced to the back of its parent. They resort to the swamps for young ash trees, out of which they make brooms and baskets, for sale, in their peregrinations. They lodge in barns, with and without leave, and beg cider from door to door. One of a clan only enters a farm house at a time, and solicits their favourite beverage for the company, which they quaff in the highway, in the order of seniority. When they tarry at any place for a little while, to prepare articles for traffic, they erect a hut of bark, called a *wigwam*, and seat themselves in it on the ground. Their quarrels are not few, and in thieving they are remarkably expert. In short, they lack but a few of the inglorious accomplishments of the Scottish gypsies, of whom we shall now proceed to give some account, from a mass of mater, contained in a new and entertaining periodical work, *The Edinburgh Monthly Magazine*.

Of this source of our information we would premise, however, that it is indebted for many of its interesting communications to the present bards of Scotland. We are informed by a most respectable correspondent in Edinburgh, that this very account of the gypsies, was compiled, in a great measure, from conversations with the celebrated Walter Scott, Esq.; who has made it his study to become acquainted with all the curious and romantic particulars, of his far-famed, poetical, philosophical, and wildly religious, native land. To this Magazine we are indebted for the review of Lalla Rookh, which we have commenced, and had given credit for it, in its proper place; but by some unaccountable accident, the printer omitted it, after the *proof* had left our hands.

The gypsies were originally from the east; and made their first appearance in Scotland in 1506, or about that time, as appears from a letter of James IV, to the king of Denmark. They pretended that they had come from Egypt on a holy pilgrimage, by order of the pope. The writer of notices respecting them in the periodical work just referred to, says,

"That this wandering people attracted considerable attention on their first arrival in Christendom in the beginning of the fifteenth century, is sufficiently evident, both from the notices of contemporary authors, and from the various edicts respecting them still existing in the archives of every state in Europe. Their first appearance and pretensions were indeed somewhat imposing. They entered Hungary and Bohemia from the east, travelling in numerous hordes, under leaders who assumed the titles of Kings, Dukes, Counts, or Lords of Lesser Egypt, and they gave themselves out for Christian Pilgrims; who had been expelled from that country by the Saracens for their adherence to the true religion. However doubtful may now appear their claims to this sacred character, they had the address to pass themselves on some of the principal sove-

reigns of Europe, and, as German historians relate, even on the Pope himself, for real pilgrims; and obtained under the seals of these potentates, various privileges and passports, empowering them to travel through all christian countries under their patronage, for the space of seven years.—Having once gained this footing, however, the Egyptian pilgrims were at no great loss in finding pretences for prolonging their stay; and though it was soon discovered that their manners and conduct corresponded but little to the sanctity of their first pretensions, yet so strong was the delusion respecting them, and so dexterous were they in the arts of imposition, that they seem to have been either legally protected or silently endured by most of the European governments for the greater part of a century.*

When their true character became at length fully understood, and they were found to be in reality a race of profligate and thievish impostors, who from their numbers and audacity had now become a grievous and intolerable nuisance to the various countries they had inundated, severe measures were adopted by different states to expel them from their territories. Decrees of expulsion were issued against them by Spain in 1492, by the German empire in 1500, and by France in 1561 and 1612. Whether it was owing, however, to the inefficient systems of police at that time in use, or, that the common people among whom they were mingled favoured their evasion of the public edicts, it is certain, that notwithstanding many long and bloody persecutions, no country that had once admitted "these unknown and uninvited guests," has ever again been able to get rid of them. When rigorously prosecuted by any government on account of their crimes and depredations, they generally withdrew for a time to the remote parts of the country, or crossed the frontiers to a neighbouring jurisdiction—only to return to their accustomed haunts and habits as soon as the storm passed over. Though their numbers may perhaps have since been somewhat diminished in particular states by the progress of civilization, it seems to be generally allowed that their distinctive character and modes of life have no where undergone any material alteration. In Germany, Hungary, Poland,—in Italy, Spain, France, and England, this singular people, by whatever appellation they may be distinguished,—Cingari, Zigeuners, Tzigany, Bohemians, Gitanos, or Gypsies,—still remain uncombined with the various nations among whom they are dispersed, and still continue the same dark, deceitful, and disorderly race as when their wandering hordes first emigrated from Egypt or from India. They are still every where characterised by the same strolling and pilfering propensities, the same peculiarity of aspect, and the same pretensions to fortune-telling and 'warlockry.'†

The estimate of their present numbers, by the best informed continental writers on the subject, is almost incredible.—"Independently," says Grellmann, "of the multitudes of gypsies in Egypt and some parts of Asia, could we obtain an exact estimate of them in the countries of Europe, the immense number would probably greatly exceed what we have any idea of. At a moderate calculation, and without being extravagant, they might be reckoned at between seven and eight hundred thousand."

* Grellmann.

† Grellmann.—See also Hume on Crim. Law of Scotland, vol. ii. p. 344.—Mackenzie's Obs. on Stat. p. 333.

The gypsies do not appear to have found their way to this island till about 100 years after they were first known in Europe. Henry VIII, and his immediate successors, by several severe enactments, and by re-exporting numbers of them at the public expense, endeavoured to expel from their dominions "this outlandish people calling themselves Egupeians," but apparently with little better success than their brother sovereigns in other countries; for in the reign of Elizabeth the number of them in England is stated to have exceeded 10,000, and they afterwards became still more numerous. If they made any pretension to the character of pilgrims, on their arrival among our southern neighbours, it is evident at least that neither Henry nor Elizabeth were deceived by their impostures. Both these monarchs, indeed, (particularly the former,) were too much accustomed to use religion, as well as law, for a cloak to cover their own violent and criminal conduct, to be easily imposed upon by the like artifices in others. We find them accordingly using very little ceremony with the 'Egyptian pilgrims' who, in several of their statutes, are described by such designations as the following:—'Sturdy roags,' 'rascalls, vacabonds,' 'masterless men, ydle, vagraunte, loyteringe, lewde, and yll disposed persons, goinge aboute usinge subtiltie and unlawful games or plaie, such as faynt themselves to have knowledge in phisiognomye, palmeetrie, or other abused sciences'—'tellers of destinies, deaths, or fortunes, and such lyke fantastical imaginatiouns.'—

In king Edward's journal we find them mentioned along with other 'masterless men.' The following association of persons seems curious:—'June 22, 1549. There was a privy search made through Suffolk for all vagabonds, gipsies, conspirators, prophesiers, all players, and such like.'

A more distinct account of the English gypsies, on their first arrival, is to be found in a work quoted by Mr. Hoyland, which was published in the year 1612, to detect and expose the art of juggling and legerdemain. 'This kind of people,' says the author, 'about a hundred years ago, beganne to gather on head, at the first heere, about the southerne parts. And this as I am informed, and can gather, was their beginning: Certain Egyptians banished their country, (belike not for their good conditions,) arrived heere in England, who for quaint tricks and devices not known heere at that time among us, were esteemed and had in great admiration; insomuch, that many of our English *loyterers* joined with them, and in time learned their crafty cozening.' 'The speech which they used was the right Egyptian speech, with whom our Englishmen conversing, at last learned their language. These people, continuing about the country, and practising their cozening art, purchased themselves great credit among the country people, and got much by palmistry and telling of fortunes; insomuch, they pitifully cozened poor country girls both of money, silver spoons, and the best of their apparelle, or any goods they could make.' 'They had a leader of the name of *Giles Hather*, who was termed their king; and a woman of the name of *Calot*, was called queen. These riding through the country on horseback, and in strange attire, had a prettie traine after them.' After mentioning some of the laws passed against them, this writer adds:—'But what numbers were executed on these statutes you would wonder; yet, notwithstanding, all would not prevail, but they wandered as before up-

* Appendix to Burnett's Hist. of Reformation, vol. II.

pe and downe, and meeting once in a yeare at a place appointed; sometimes at the Peake's Hôle in Derbyshire, and other whiles by Retbrook at Blackheath.'*

In Scotland the gypsies found a people so fond of the marvellous, and so devoted to superstition, that for a time they were easily imposed on; and John Faw, their chieftain, passed himself off for 'Lord Erle of Litile Egipt.' Laws were even enacted for his benefit; and the race of rogues flourished, without molestation, until 'in 1759, the government found it necessary to adopt the most rigorous methods to repress the innumerable swarm of stroling vagabonds of every description, who had overspread the kingdom.' It was in vain, however, that the laws banished them, and enacted severe penalties against all who harboured them. It was in vain that the multitudes of them were hung, without judge or jury, and in some instances, with less evidence than convicted and executed the witches of Salem; for they continue in Scotland to this day. We shall extract 'some private and personal anecdotes concerning them,' under different heads.

Jonnie Faa.

The intrigue of the celebrated Johnnie Faa with the Earl of Cassilis' lady, rests on ballad and popular authority. Tradition points out an old tower in Maybole, as the place where the frail countess was confined. The portrait shown as hers in the Abbey of Holyroodhouse, however, is not genuine.—Of this affair of gypsy gallantry, Mr. Finlay, in his notes to the old ballad of the Gypsie Laddie, gives the following account, as the result of his inquiries regarding the truth of the traditional stories on the subject:—"The Earl of Cassilis had married a nobleman's daughter contrary to her wishes, she having been previously engaged to another; but the persuasion and importunity of her friends at last brought her to consent. Sir John Faw of Dunbar, her former lover, seizing the opportunity of the earl's absence on a foreign embassy, disguised himself and a number of his retainers as gypsies, and carried off the lady, 'nothing loth.' The earl having returned opportunely at the time of the commission of the act, and nowise inclined to participate in his consort's ideas on the subject, collected his vassals, and pursued the lady and her paramour to the borders of England, where, having overtaken them, a battle ensued, in which Faw and his followers were all killed or taken prisoners, excepting one,

—— the meanest of them all,
Who lives to weep, and sing their fall.

It is by this survivor that the ballad is supposed to have been written. The earl, on bringing back the fair fugitive, banished her *a mensa et thoro*, and, it is said, confined her for life in a tower at the village of Maybole, in Ayrshire, built for the purpose; and that nothing might remain about this tower unappropriated to its original destination, eight heads, carved in stone, below one of the turrets, are said to be the effigies of so many of the gypsies. The lady herself, as well as the survivor of Faw's followers, contributed to perpetuate the remembrance of the transaction; for if he wrote a song about it, she wrought it in tapestry; and this piece of workmanship is still preserved at Culzean Castle. It

* Hoyland's Historical Survey.

remains to be mentioned, that the ford, by which the lady and her lover crossed the river Doon from a wood near Cassilis House, is still denominated the Gypsie Steps."

Mr. Finlay is of opinion, that there are no good grounds for identifying the hero of this adventure with Johnnie Faa, who was king or captain of the gypsies about the year 1590, and he supposes that the whole story may have been the invention of some feudal or political rival to injure the character, and hurt the feelings of an opponent. As Mr. F. however, has not brought forward any authority to support this opinion, we are inclined still to adhere to the popular tradition, which, on the present occasion, is very uniform and consistent. We do not know any thing about the Sir John Faw of Dunbar, whom he supposes to have been the disguised knight, but we know for certain, that the present gypsey family of Faa in Yetholm have been long accustomed to boast of their descent from the same stock with a very respectable family of the name of Faw, or Fall, in East Lothian, which we believe is now extinct.

The transformation of Johnnie Faa into a knight and gentleman, is not the only occasion on which the disguise of a gypsey is supposed to have been assumed for the purpose of intrigue. The old song of '*Clout the Caudron*' is founded upon such a metamorphosis, as may be seen from the words in Allan Ramsay's *Tea-table Miscellany*; but an older copy preserves the name of the disguised lover:—

"Yestreen I was a gentleman,
This night I am a tinkler;
Gea tell the lady o' this house,
Come down to Sir John Sinclair."

Bloody Skirmishes of the Gypsies.

Tweeddale was very much infested by these banditti, as appears from Dr. Pennycuik's history of that county, who mentions the numerous executions to which their depredations gave occasion. He also gives the following account of a bloody skirmish which was fought between two clans of gypsies near his own house of Romanno. "Upon the 1st of October 1677, there happened at Romanno, in the very spot where now the dovecoat is built, a memorable polymachy betwixt two clans of gypsies, the *Fawes* and *Shawes*, who had come from Haddingtoun fair, and where going to Harestains to meet with two other clans of those rouges, the *Baillies* and *Browns*, with a resolution to fight them; they fell out at Romanno amongst themselves, about dividing the spoil they had got at Haddington, and fought it manfully; of the *Fawes* were four brethren and a brother's son; of the *Shawes*, the father with three sons, with several women on both sides: Old Sandie Faw, a bold and proper fellow, with his wife then with child, were both kill'd dead upon the place, and his brother George very dangerously wounded. February 1678, old Robin Shaw the gypsie, with his three sons, were hang'd at the Grass-mercat for the above-mentioned murder committed at Romanno, and John Faw was hang'd the Wednesday following for another murder. Sir Archibald Primrose was justice-general at the time, and Sir George M'Kenzie king's advocat." Dr Pennycuik built a dovecote upon the spot where this affray took place, which he adorned with the following inscription:

"A. D. 1683.

The field of Gypsie blood which here you see,
A shelter for the harmless Dove shall be."

Such skirmishes among the gypsies are still common, and were formerly still more so. There was a story current in Teviotdale,—but we cannot give place and date,—that a gang of them came to a solitary farm house, and, as usual, took possession of some waste out-house. The family went to church on Sunday, and expecting no harm from their visitors, left only one female to look after the house. She was presently alarmed by the noise of shouts, oaths, blows, and all the tumult of a gypsy battle. It seems another clan had arrived, and the earlier settlers instantly gave them battle. The poor woman shut the door, and remained in the house in great apprehension, until the door being suddenly forced open, one of the combatants rushed into the apartment, and she perceived with horror that his left hand had been struck off. Without speaking to or looking at her, he thrust the bloody stump, with desperate resolution, against the glowing bars of the grate; and having stanch-ed the blood by actual cautery, seized a knife, used for killing sheep, which lay on the shelf, and rushed out again to join the combat.—All was over before the family returned from church, and both gangs had decamped, carrying probably their dead and wounded along with them; for the place where they fought was absolutely soaked with blood, and exhibited, among other reliques of the fray, the amputated hand of the wretch, whose desperate conduct the maid-servant had witnessed. The village of Denholm upon Teviot was, in former times, partly occupied by gypsies. The late Dr. John Leyden, who was a native of that parish, used to mention a skirmish which he had witnessed there between two clans, where the more desperate champions fought with clubs, having harrow-teeth driven transversely through the end of them.

A Point of Honour.

About ten years ago, one John Young, a tinker-chief, punished with instant death a brother tinker, of inferior consequence who intruded on his walk. This happened in Aberdeenshire, and was remarked at the time chiefly from the strength and agility with which Young, constantly and closely pursued, and frequently in view, maintained a flight of nearly thirty miles. As he was chased by the Highlanders on foot, and by the late general Gordon of Cairnfield and others on horseback, the affair much resembled a fox-chase. The pursuers were most of them game-keepers; and that active race of men were so much exhausted, that they were lying by the springs lapping water with their tongues like dogs. It is scarce necessary to add, that the laws of the country were executed on Young without regard to the consideration that he was only enforcing the gypsey subordination.

Mr. Hogg's Account of Some Gypsies.

It was in the month of May that a gang of gypsies came up Et-trick;—one party of them lodged at a farm house called Sub-Cleugh; and the rest went forward to Cossarhill, another farm about a mile farther on. Among the latter was one who played on the pipes and violin, delighting all that heard him; and the gang, principally on his account, were very civilly treated. Next day the two parties again joined, and proceeded westward in a body. There were about thirty souls in all;

and they had five horses. On a sloping grassy spot, which I know very well, on the farm of Brückhoprig, they halted to rest. Here the hapless musician quarrelled with another of the tribe about a girl, who I think, was sister to the latter. Weapons were instantly drawn, and the piper losing courage, or knowing that he was not a match for his antagonist, fled—the other pursuing close at his heels. For a full mile and a half they continued to strain most violently,—the one running for life, and the other thirsting for blood,—until they came again to Cossarhill, the place they had left. The family were all gone out, either to the sheep or the peats, save one servant girl, who was baking bread at the kitchen table, when the piper rushed breathless into the house. She screamed, and asked what was the matter? He answered, "Nae skaith to you—nae skaith to you—for God in heaven's sake hide me!"—With that he essayed to hide himself behind a salt barrel that stood in a corner—but his ruthless pursuer instantly entering, his panting betrayed him. The ruffian pulled him out by the hair, dragged him into the middle of the floor, and ran him through the body with his dirk. The piper never asked for mercy, but cursed the other as long as he had breath. The girl was struck motionless with horror; but the murderer told her never to heed or regard it, for no ill should happen to her. It was this woman's daughter, Isabel Scott, who told me the story, which she had often heard related with all the minute particulars. If she had been still alive, I think she would have been bordering upon ninety years of age;—her mother, when this happened, was a young unmarried woman—fit, it seems, to be a kitchen-maid in a farm-house,—so that this must have taken place about 100 years ago.—By the time the breath was well out of the unfortunate musician, some more of the gang arrived, bringing with them a horse, on which they carried back the body, and buried it on the spot where they first quarrelled. His grave is marked by one stone at the head, and another at the foot, which the gypsies themselves placed; and it is still looked upon by the rustics as a dangerous place for a walking ghost to this day. There was no cognizance taken of the affair, that any of the old people ever heard of—but God forbid that every amorous minstrel should be so sharply taken to task in these days!

There is a similar story, of later date, of a murder committed at Lowrie's-den, on Soutra-Hill, by one gypsy on another; but I do not remember the particulars farther than that it was before many witnesses,—that they fought for a considerable time most furiously with their fists, till at last one getting the other down, drew a knife, and stabbed him to the heart—when he pulled the weapon out, the blood sprung to the ceiling, where it remained as long as that house stood;—and that though there were many of the gang present, none of them offered to separate the combatants, or made any observation on the issue, farther than one saying—"Gude faith, ye hae done for him now, Rob!" The story bears, that the assassin fled, but was pursued by some travellers who came up at the time, and after a hot chase, was taken, and afterwards hanged.

In my parents' early years, continues Mr. Hogg, the Faas and the Baillies used to traverse the country in bodies of from twenty to thirty in number, among whom were many stout, handsome, and athletic men. They generally cleared the waters and burns of fish, the farmers out-houses of poultry and eggs, and the lums of all superfluous

and moveable stuff, such as hams, &c. that hung there for the purpose of *reasting*. It was likewise well known, that they never scrupled killing a lamb or a wether occasionally; but they always managed matters so dexterously, that no one could ever ascertain from whom these were taken. The gypsies were otherwise civil, full of humour and merriment, and the country people did not dislike them. They fought desperately with one another, but were seldom the aggressors in any dispute or quarrel with others—Old Will of Phaup, a well-known character at the head of Ettrick, was wont to shelter them for many years;—they asked nothing but house-room and grass for their horses, and though they sometimes remained for several days, he could have left every chest and press about the house open, with the certainty that nothing would be missing; for he said, ‘he aye kend fu’ weel that the tod wad keep his ain hole clean.’ But times altered sadly with honest Will—which happened as follows:—The gypsies (or *sinklers*, as they then began to be called), were lodged at a place called Potburn, and the farmer either having bad grass about his house, or not choosing to have it eaten up, had made the gypsies turn their horses over the water to Phaup ground. One morning about break of day, Will found the stoutest man of the gang, Ellick Kennedy, feeding six horses on the Coomb-loan; the best piece of grass on the farm, and which he was carefully *haining* for winter fodder. A desperate combat ensued—but there was no man a match for Will—he threshed the tinkler to his heart’s content, cut the girthing and sunks off the horses, and hunted them out of the country.—A warfare of five years duration ensued between Will and the gypsies. They nearly ruined him; and at the end of that period he was glad to make up matters with his old friends, and shelter them as formerly. He said, ‘He could maistly hae hauden his ain wi’ them an’ it hadna been for their *warlockry*, but the deil-be-lickit he could keep fra their kenning—they aince fand out his purse, though he had gart Meg dabble’t into the kailyard.’ Lochmaben is now one of their great resorts—being nearly stocked with them. The redoubted Rachel Bailley, noted for her high honour, is viewed as the queen of the tribe.

An Innocent Man.

The unabashed hardihood of the gypsies in the face of suspicion, or even of open conviction, is not less characteristic than the facility with which they commit crimes, or their address in concealing them. A gypsy of note, still alive, (an acquaintance of ours), was, about twenty years ago, tried for a theft of a considerable sum of money at a Dalkeith market. The proof seemed to the judge fully sufficient, but the jury being of a different opinion, brought in the verdict *Not Proven*; on which occasion, the presiding judge, when he dismissed the prisoner from the bar, informed him in his own characteristic language, “That he had rubbit shouthers wi’ the gallows that morning;” and warned him not again to appear there with a similar body of proof against him, as it seemed scarce possible he should meet with another jury who would construe it as favourably. Upon the same occasion, the prisoner’s counsel, a gentleman now deceased, thought it proper also to say something to his client on the risk he had run, and the necessity of future propriety of conduct; to which the gypsy replied, to the great enter-

tainment of all around, "That he was *proven an innocent man*, and that naebody had ony right to use siccan language to him."

Will Allen's Pipe Hand.

Will Allen, mentioned by the Reedwater Minstrel,* I did not know, but was well acquainted with his son Jamie, a most excellent piper, and at one time in the household of the Northumberland family; but being an utterly unprincipled vagabond, he wearied the benevolence of all his protectors, who were numerous and powerful, and saved him from the gallows more than once. Upon one occasion, being closely pursued, when surprised in some villany, he dropped from the top of a very high wall, not without receiving a severe cut upon the fingers with a hanger from one of his pursuers, who came up at the moment he hung suspended for descent. Allan exclaimed with minstrel pride, 'Ye hae spoiled the best pipe hand in Britain.'

Old Jean Gordon.

My father, says a contributor to the Edinburgh Monthly Magazine, remembered old Jean Gordon of Yetholm, who had great sway among her tribes. She was quite a Meg Merrilies, and possessed the savage virtue of fidelity in the same perfection. Having been often hospitably received at the farm-house of Lochside, near Yetholm, she had carefully abstained from committing any depredations on the farmer's property. But her sons (nine in number) had not, it seems, the same delicacy, and stole a brood-sow from their kind entertainer. Jean was so much mortified at this ungrateful conduct, and so much ashamed of it, that she absented herself from Lochside for several years. At length, in consequence of some temporary pecuniary necessity, the goodman of Lochside was obliged to go to Newcastle to get some money to pay his rent. Returning through the mountains of Chevoit, he was benighted, and lost his way. A light, glimmering through the window of a large waste barn, which had survived the farm-house to which it had once belonged, guided him to a place of shelter; and when he knocked at the door; it was opened by Jean Gordon. Her very remarkable figure, for she was nearly six feet high, and her equally remarkable features and dress, rendered it impossible to mistake her for a moment; and to meet with such a character in so solitary a place, and probably at no great distance from her clan, was a terrible surprise to the poor man, whose rent (to lose which would have been ruin to him) was about his person. Jean set up a loud shout of joyful recognition—'Eh, sirs! the winsome gudeman of Lochside! Light down, light down; for ye maunna gang farther the night, and a friend's house sac near.' The farmer was obliged to dismount, and accept of the gypsy's offer of

* "A stalwart Tinkler wight was he,
And weel could mend a pot or pan,
An' deftly Wull could *throw a flee*,
An' neatly weave the willow wan';

"An' sweetly wild were Allan's strains,
An' mony a jig an' reel he blew,
Wi' merry lilt he charm'd the swains,
Wi' barbed spear the otter-slew," &c.

Lay of the Reedwater Minstrel.—

supper and a bed. There was plenty of meat in the barn, however it might be come by, and preparations were going on for a plentiful supper, which the farmer, to the great increase of his anxiety, observed, was calculated for ten or twelve guests, of the same description no doubt with his landlady. Jean left him in no doubt on the subject. She brought up the story of the stolen sow, and noticed how much pain and vexation it had given her. Like other philosophers, she remarked that the world grows worse daily, and like other parents, that the bairns got out of her guiding, and neglected the old gypsy regulations, which commanded them to respect, in their depredations, the property of their benefactors. The end of all this was, an inquiry what money the farmer had about him, and an urgent request, that he would make her his purse-keeper, as the bairns, as she called her sons, would be soon home. The poor farmer made a virtue of necessity, told his story, and surrendered his gold to Jean's custody. She made him put a few shillings in his pocket, observing it would excite suspicion should he be found travelling altogether penniless. This arrangement being made, the farmer lay down on a sort of *shake-down*, as the Scotch call it, upon some straw, but as will easily be believed, slept not. About midnight the gang returned with various articles of plunder, and talked over their exploits in language which made the farmer tremble. They were not long in discovering their guest, and demanded of Jean whom she had got there.—“E'en the winsome gudeman of Lochside, poor body,” replied Jean, “he's been at Newcastle seeking for siller to pay his rent, honest man, but deil-be-licket he's been able to gether in, and see he's gaun e'en hame wi' a toom purse and a sair heart.”—“That may be, Jean,” replied one of the banditti, “but we maun ripe his pouches a bit, and see if it be true or no.” Jean set up her throat in exclamations against this breach of hospitality, but without producing any change of their determination. The farmer soon heard their stifled whispers and light steps by his bedside, and understood they were rummaging his clothes. When they found the money which the providence of Jean Gordon had made him retain, they held a consultation if they should take it or no, but the smallness of the booty, and the vehemence of Jean's remonstrances determined them in the negative. They caroused and went to rest. So soon as day dawned, Jean roused her guest, produced his horse, which she had accommodated behind the *hallan*, and guided him for some miles till he was on the high road to Lochside. She then restored his whole property, nor could his earnest intreaties prevail on her to accept so much as a single guinea.

I have heard the old people at Jedburgh say, that all Jean's sons were condemned to die there on the same day. It is said the jury were equally divided, but that a friend to justice, who had slept during the whole discussion, waked suddenly and gave his vote for condemnation, in the emphatic words, “*Hang them a.*” Jean was present, and only said, “The lord help the innocent in a day like this!” Her own death was accompanied with circumstances of brutal outrage, of which poor Jean was in many respects wholly undeserving. Jean had among other demerits, or merits, as you may choose to rank it, that of being a stanch Jacobite. She chanced to be at Carlisle upon a fair or market day, soon after the year 1746, where she gave vent to her political partiality, to the great offence of the rabble of that city. Being zealous in

their loyalty when there was no danger, in proportion to the tameness with which they had surrendered to the Highlanders in 1746, they inflicted upon poor Jean Gordon no slighter penalty than that of ducking her to death in the Eden. It was an operation of some time, for Jean was a stout woman, and struggling with her murderers, often got her head above water; and while she had voice left continued to exclaim at such intervals, "*Charlie yet! Charlie yet!*"—When a child, and among the scenes which she frequented, I have often heard these stories, and cried pitiously for poor Jean Gordon.

"Before quitting the border gypsies, I may mention, that my grandfather riding over Charterhouse-moor, then a very extensive common, fell suddenly among a large band of them, who were carousing in a hollow of the moor surrounded by bushes. They instantly seized on his horse's bridle with many shouts of welcome, exclaiming (for he was well known to most of them) that they had often dined at his expense; and he must now stay and share their good cheer. My ancestor was a little alarmed, for, like the goadman of Locheide, he had more money about his person than he cared to venture with into such society. However, being naturally a bold lively man, he entered into the humour of the thing, and sat down to the feast, which consisted of all the varieties of game, poultry, pigs, and so forth, that could be collected by a wide and indiscriminate system of plunder. The feast was a very merry one, but my relative got a hint from some of the older gypsies to retire just when—

'The mirth and fun grew fast and furious,'

and mounting his horse accordingly, he took a French leave of his entertainers, but without experiencing the least breach of hospitality. I believe Jean Gordon was at this festival.

Billy Marshal.

A correspondent of the editor of the Monthly Magazine thus writes, over the date of Edinburgh, May 26, 1817:

I cannot say that I, as an individual, owe any obligations to the late Billy Marshal; but, sir, I am one of an old family in the stewartry of Galloway, with whom Billy was intimate for nearly a whole century. He visited regularly, twice a year, my great-grandfather, grandfather, and father, and partook, I dare say, of their hospitality: but he made a grateful and ample return; for during all the days of Billy's natural life, which the sequel will show not to have been few, the *washings* could have been safely left out all night, without any thing, from a sheet or a table-cloth down to a dishcloth, being in any danger. During that long period of time, there never was a goose, turkey, duck, or hen, taken away, but what could have been clearly traced to the fox, the brock, or the fumart; and I have heard an old female domestic of ours declare, that she had known Billy Marshal and his gang, again and again, mend all the 'kettles, pans, and *cracket pigs* in the house, and make *two* or three dozen o'horn spoons into the bargain, and never *tak a farthin o' the laird's siller*.' I am sorry that I cannot give you any very minute history of my hero: however, I think it a duty I owe on account of my family, not to allow, as far as I can hinder it, the memory, and name of so old a friend and benefactor to fall into oblivion, when such people as the Faas and Baileys, &c., are spoken of.

Where he was born I cannot tell. Who were his descendants I can-

not tell; I am sure he could not do it himself, if he were living. It is known that they were prodigiously numerous; I dare say, *numberless*. For a great part of his long life, he reigned with sovereign sway over a numerous and powerful gang of gypsy tinkers, who took their range over Carrick in Ayrshire, the Carrick mountains, and over the stewartry and shire of Galloway; and now and then, by way of improving themselves, and seeing more of the world, they crossed at Donaghadee, and visited the counties of Down and Derry. I am not very sure about giving you up *Meg Merrilies* quite so easily; I have reason to think, she was a Marshal, and not a Gordon: and we folks in Galloway, think this attempt of the borderers, to rob us of *Meg Merrilies*, no proof that they have become quite so religious and pious, as your author would have us to believe, but rather that, with their religion and piety, they still retain some of their *ancient habits*. We think, this attempt to deprive us of *Meg Merrilies*, almost as bad as that of the descendants of the barbarous Picts, now inhabiting the banks of the Dee in Aberdeenshire, who some years ago attempted to run off with the beautiful lyric of *Mary's Dream*; and which we were under the necessity of proving, in one of the courts of Apollo, to be the effusion of Low's muse, on the classic and romantic spot, situated at the conflux of the Dee and the Ken, in the stewartry of Galloway. But to return from this digression to *Billy Marshal*—I will tell you every thing more about him I know, hoping this may catch the eye of some one who knew him better, and who will tell you more.

Billy Marshal's account of himself was this: he was born in or about the year 1666: but he might have been mistaken as to the exact year of his birth; however, the fact never was doubted, of his having been a private soldier in the army of King William, at the battle of the Boyne. It was also well known, that he was a private in some of the British regiments, which served under the great duke of Marlborough in Germany, about the year 1705. But at this period, *Billy's* military career in the service of his country ended. About this time he went to his commanding officer, one of the *McGuffogs* of *Ruscoe*, a very old family in Galloway, and asked him if he had any commands for his native country: Being asked, if there was any opportunity, he replied, yes; he was going to *Keltonhill* fair, having for some years made it a rule never to be absent. His officer knowing his man, thought it needless to take any very strong measure to hinder him; and *Billy* was at *Keltonhill* accordingly.

Now *Billy's* destinies placed him in a high sphere; it was about this period, that, either electively, or by usurpation, he was placed at the head of that *mighty* people in the south west, whom he governed with equal prudence and talent for the long space of eighty or ninety years. Some of his admirers assert, that he was of *royal ancestry*, and that he succeeded by the laws of hereditary succession; but no regular annals of *Billy's house* were kept; and oral tradition and testimony weigh heavily against this assertion. From any research I have been able to make, I am strongly disposed to think, that, in this crisis of his life, *Billy Marshal* had been no better than *Julius Cæsar*, *Richard III.*, *Oliver Cromwell*, *Hyder Ally*, or *Napoleon Bonaparte*: I do not mean to say, that he waded through as much blood as some of those, to seat himself on a throne, or to grasp at the diadem and sceptre; but it was shrewdly suspected, that *Billy Marshal* had stained his character and his hands with human blood: His predecessor died very suddenly, it never was suppo-

said by his own hand, and he was buried as privately about the foot of Cairnmuir, Craig Nolder, or the Corse of Slakes; without the ceremony, or perhaps, more properly speaking, the benefit of a *freecognition* being taken, or an *inquest* held by a coroner's jury. During this long reign, he and his followers were not outdone in their exploits, by any of the colonies of Kirk-Yetholm, Herncliff, Spital, or Lochmaben. The following anecdote will convey a pretty correct notion, of what kind of personage Billy was, in the evening of his life: as for his early days, I really know nothing more of them than what I have already told.

The writer of this, in the month of May 1789, had returned to Galway after a long absence: He soon learned, that Billy Marshal, of whom he had heard so many tales in his childhood, was still in existence. Upon one occasion he went to Newton-Stewart, with the late Mr. McCulloch of Barholm and the late Mr. Hannay of Bargaly, to dine with Mr. Samuel McCaul. Billy Marshal then lived at the hamlet or clachan of Polnure, a spot beautifully situated on the burn or stream of that name: We called on our old hero,—he was at home,—he never denied himself,—and soon appeared,—he walked slowly, but firmly towards the carriage, and asked Mr. Hannay, who was a warm friend of his, how he was!—Mr. Hannay asked if he knew who was in the carriage? he answered, that his eyes 'had failed him a gude deal;' but added, that he saw his friend Barholm, and that he could see a youth sitting betwixt them, whom he did not know. I was introduced, and had a gracious shake of his hand. He told me I was setting out in life, and admonished me, to 'tak care o' my ham', and do naething to dishonor the gude stock o' folk that I was come o'; he added, that I was the fourth generation of us he had been acquaint wi'. Each of us paid a small pecuniary tribute of respect,—I attempted to add to mine, but Barholm told me, that he had fully as much as would be put to a good use. We were returning the same way, betwixt ten and eleven at night, after spending a pleasant day, and taking a cheerful glass with our friend Mr. McCaul; we were descending the beautifully wooded hills, above the picturesque Glen of Polnure,—my two companions were napping,—the moon shone clear,—and all nature was quiet, excepting Polnure burn, and the dwelling of Billy Marshal,—the postillion stopt, (in these parts the well known and well-liked Johnny Whurk,) and turning round with a voice which indicated terror, he said, 'Gude guide us, there's folk singing psalms in the wood!' My companions awoke and listened,—Barholm said, 'psalms, sure enough;' but Bargaly said, 'the Deil a-bit o' them are psalms.' We went on, and stopt again at the door of the old king: We then heard Billy go through a great many stanzas of a song, in such a way as convinced us that his memory and voice had, at any rate, not failed him; he was joined by a numerous and powerful chorus. It is quite needless to be so minute, as to give any account of the song which Billy sung; it will be enough to say, that my friend Barholm was completely wrong, in supposing it to be a psalm; it resembled in no particular, psalm, paraphrase, or hymn. We called him out again,—he appeared much brisker than he was in the morning; we advised him to go to bed; but he replied, that 'he didna think he wad be muckle in his bed that night,—they had to tak the country in the morning (meaning, that they were to begin a ramble over the country,) and that they 'were just takin a wee draught drink to the health of our honours, wi' the lock siller we had gi'en them.' I shook hands with him for the last time,—he then called him-

self above one hundred and twenty years of age; he died about 1790. His great age never was disputed to the extent of more than three or four years: The oldest people in the country allowed the account to be correct.—The great-grandmother of the writer of this article died at the advanced age of one hundred and four; her age was correctly known; she said, that *Will Marshal* was a man when she was a *bit callant*, (provincially, in Galloway, a very young girl.) She had no doubt as to his being fifteen or sixteen years older than herself, and he survived her several years. His long reign, if not *glorious*, was in the main fortunate for himself and his people: Only one great calamity befel him and them, during that long space of time in which he held the reins of government. It may have been already suspected, that with Billy Marshal, ambition was a ruling passion; and this bane of human fortune, had stimulated in him a desire to extend his dominions, from the *Brigg end of Dumfries* to the *Newton of Ayr*, at a time when, he well knew, the *Brace of Blen-Nap*, and the *Water of Doon*, to be his western precinct. He reached the *Newton of Ayr*, which I believe is in *Kyle*; but there he was opposed, and compelled to recross the river, by a powerful body of tinkers from *Argyle* or *Dumbarton*: He said, in his *bulletins*, that they were supported by strong bodies of Irish sailors, and *Kyle colliers*: Billy had no *artillery*, but his *cavalry* and *infantry* suffered very severely. He was obliged to leave a great part of his *baggage*, *provisions*, and *camp equipage*, behind him; consisting of kettles, pots, pans, blankets, crockery, horns, pigs, poultry, &c. A large proportion of shelties, asses, and mules, were driven into the water and drowned; which occasioned a *heavy loss*, in creels, panniers, hampers, tinkers' tools, and cooking utensils; and although he was as well appointed, as to a *medical staff*, as such expeditions usually were, in addition to those who were missing, many died of their wounds: However, on reaching *Maybole* with his broken and dispirited troops, he was joined by a faithful ally from the county of *Dewn*; who, unlike *other allies* on such occasions, did not forsake him in his adversity. This junction enabled our hero to rally, and pursue in his turn: a pitched battle was again fought, somewhere about the *Brigg of Doon* or *Alloway Kirk*; when both sides, as is *usual*, claimed a victory; but, however this may have been, it is believed that this disaster, which happened A. D. 1712, had slaked the thirst of Billy's ambition: He was many years in recovering from the effects of this great *political* error; indeed it had nearly proved as fatal to the fortunes of Billy Marshal, as the ever memorable Russian campaign did to *Napoleon Bonaparte*, about the same year in the succeeding century.

It is usual for writers, to give the character along with the death of their prince or hero: I would like to be excused from the performance of any such task, as drawing the character of Billy Marshal; but it may be done in a few words, by saying, that he had from nature a strong mind, with a vigorous and active person; and that, either naturally, or by acquirement, he possessed every *mental* and *personal* quality, which was requisite for one who was placed in his *high station*, and who held sovereign power over his *fellow creatures* for so great a length of time: I would be glad if I could, with impartiality, close my account here, but it becomes my duty to add, that, (from expediency, it is believed, not from choice) with the exception of intemperate drinking, treachery, and ingratitude, he practised every crime which is incident to human

nature,—these of the deepest dye, I am afraid, cannot with truth be included in the exception: In short, his people met with an irreparable loss in the death of their king and leader; but it never was alleged, that the moral world sustained any loss by the death of the man, L.

Edinburgh, May 26, 1817.

Marshal's gang had long held possession of a large cove or cavern in the high grounds of Cairnmuir, in Galloway, where they usually deposited their plunder, and sometimes resided, secure from the officers of the law, as no one durst venture to molest the tribe in that retired subterraneous situation. It happened that two Highland pipers, strangers to the country, were travelling that way; and falling in by chance with this cove, they entered it, to shelter themselves from the weather, and resolved to rest there during the night. They found pretty good quarters, but observed some very suspicious furniture in the cove, which indicated the profession and character of its absent inhabitants. They had not remained long, till they were alarmed by the voices of a numerous band advancing to its entrance. The pipers expected nothing but death from the ruthless gypsies. One of them, however, being a man of some presence of mind, called to his neighbour instantly to 'fill his bags,' (doing the same himself,) and to strike up a pibroch with all his might and main. Both pipes accordingly at once commenced a most tremendous onset, the cove with all its echoes pealing back the 'Pibroch of Donuil Dhu,' or such like. At this very unexpected and terrific reception,—the yelling of the bagpipes, issuing from the bowels of the earth, just at the moment the gypsies entered the cove,—Billy Marshall, with all his band, precipitately fled in the greatest consternation, and from that night never again would go near their favourite haunt, believing that the blasts they had heard proceeded from the devil or some of his agents. The pipers next morning prosecuted their journey in safety, carrying with them the *spolia optima* of the redoubted Billy and the clan Marshal.

Gleid-neckit Will.

The late Mr. Leck, minister of Yetholm, happened to be riding home one evening from a visit over in Northumberland, when finding himself like to be benighted, for the sake of a near cut, he struck into a wild solitary track, or drove road, across the fells, by a place called *The Staw*. In one of the derne places through which this path led him, there stood an old deserted shepherd's house, which, of course, was reputed to be haunted. The minister, though little apt to be alarmed by such reports, was however somewhat startled, on observing, as he approached close to the cottage, a 'grim visage' starting out past a *window-taith*, or sort of curtain, which had been fastened up to supply the place of a door,—and also several 'dusky figures' skulking among the bourtrees bushes that had once sheltered the shepherd's garden. Without leaving him any time for speculation, however, the knight of the curtain bolted forth upon him, and seizing his horse by the bridle, demanded his money. Mr. Leck, though it was now dusk, at once recognised the gruff voice and the great black burly head of his next door neighbour, *Gleid-neckit Will*, the gypsy chief.—"Dear me, *William*," said the minister in his usual quiet manner, "can this be you? Ye're surely no serious wi' me?—Ye wadna see far wrang your character for a good neighbour for the bit trifle I hae to gie, *William*?—" Lord

saif us, Mr. Leck!" said Will, quitting the rein, and lifting his hat with great respect, "whae wad hae thought o' meeting yow out owre here-away?—Ye needna gripe for ony siller to me—I wadna touch a plack o' your gear, nor a hair o' your head, for a' the gowd o' Tividale—I ken ye'll no do us na ill turn for this mistak—and I'll e'en see ye safe through the eirie Staw—it's no reckoned a very canny *bit* mair ways nor ane; but I wat weel ye'll no be feared for the *dead*, and I'll tak care o' the *living*.—Will accordingly gave his revered friend a safe convoy through the haunted pass, and, notwithstanding this ugly mistake, continued ever after an ipoffensive and obliging neighbour to the minister,—who on his part observed a prudent and inviolable secrecy on the subject of this rencounter during the life-time of *Gleid-neckit Will*.

ART. VII.—*Notoria; or Miscellaneous Articles of Philosophy, Literature, and Politics.*

DEATH BY WIND OF A CANNON BALL.

.. *From the Monthly Magazine.*

In answer to the inquiries of your correspondent G. G. requesting an explanation of the manner by which Capt. Downie's death can be accounted for, by means of a cannon-ball passing near him without leaving any outward marks of violence—my opinion is, that that officer's death was occasioned by inhaling a quantity of highly condensed air into the lungs, at the instant the ball was passing him.

When air is violently compressed, it gives out a vast quantity of caloric; hence it is, that a cylinder and piston is used for the purpose of generating fire. Mr. Haas, of Lisbon, the ingenious improver of the air-pump, showed me some of those cylinders which he had constructed, whose length were only six inches, and internal diameter an inch; yet, by suddenly forcing the piston into the tube, and quickly withdrawing it again, a bit of tinder, previously fixed to the end of the piston, was found to have caught fire.

When such an event takes place, and when so much caloric is disengaged from air merely by the muscular strength of a man, what must be expected from the force of a cannon-ball, travelling with a velocity of 7 or 800 feet per second. It may justly be inferred that, in its passage, the resistance of the air is such as to compress a hemisphere of air immediately before the ball, into a much smaller bulk than it naturally occupies; and this condensed air gives out such a quantity of caloric, that the ball, as it passes along, may be

considered as carrying with it a hemisphere of liquid fire.

Supposing then that Capt. Downie was in the act of inspiring, or drawing air into the lungs, at the instant the ball was passing him; there is no doubt, but that inhaling the smallest quantity of air so highly condensed, would occasion immediate death.

It may be objected that, the air not being in a state of confinement, a ball passing through it would not have the same effect in condensing it as when compressed in a close tube; but, whoever considers the vast resistance of air to bodies in motion, as ascertained by Mr. Romer, will be convinced that a quantity of very highly condensed air, must accompany a cannon-ball in its passage, and that the smallest quantity of such air inhaled into the lungs of an animal would cause immediate death.

A further and stronger objection may be, that the whirling motion acquired by a ball projected from a cannon, will have a tendency to dissipate the condensed air, in the same manner that a wet mop whirled round throws off the water from it: this, I make no doubt, is the case, and may be the reason why every ball fired out of the same cannon has not the same effect in condensing the air in its passage; the rotatory motion acquired by a ball will depend greatly on circumstances connected with the state of the gun, the quantity of windage, and the manner of being loaded.

I shall only trouble you further with observing, that the manner of Capt. Downie's death is by no means singular. During a period of eight or ten years

service, principally in the seat of war, I have had an opportunity of witnessing several similar cases of persons being killed by a cannon-ball passing them, without leaving any outward appearances of injury; and I once saw even a dragoon's horse killed in the same manner.

I cannot omit mentioning the case of a soldier of the 42d regt. whom I saw two days after being wounded by a cannon-ball at Fuentes de Honor, in Spain: the ball had passed close by his right ear, I conceive, without actually touching him—nevertheless, the whole side of his head, even to the back part of the ear, appeared in every respect the same as if it had been scalded with boiling water.

Report of a case of Hydrophobia, successfully treated by venesection.—By Assistant-Surgeon Gibbon, H. M. 69th Reg.

Isabel, the wife of Serjeant M^d Daniel, of his Majesty's 80th Regiment, aged 22, was taken ill this evening (19th September,) about five o'clock, complaining of head-ache and pain at the Scrobiculus Cordis,—about an hour afterwards, refused to take her tea and showed a degree of horror at the sight of it: her husband then offered her some spirits and water, which she also refused, and looked at it with dread; was immediately seized with a violent convulsive fit, in consequence of which I was sent for, and found her labouring under strong muscular spasmodic action of the whole body, her countenance expressive of a degree of furor I had never before witnessed, her eyeballs were turgid and glistened with a vacant stare, attempting to bite the attendants and every thing that came in her way. While she was in this state, some officious person threw a cup-full of cold water in her face which aggravated the spasms very much: and increased my suspicion of the disease being Hydrophobia. This fit continued about an hour, when she became a little quiet, I desired some water to be offered her, at which she shuddered, yet attempted to swallow and succeeded with great difficulty in taking about a table spoonful, which produced a repetition of the spasmodic fit considerably more violent than the former, and attended with a most dreadful sense of

suffocation; during this paroxysm the saliva collected in increased quantities and was discharged. As the violence of the muscular action subsided, she cried loudly in a peculiar tone of voice, sighed deeply and applied her hand to her breast expressive of severe pain. Pulse one hundred and twelve in a minute and small. Having now a thorough conviction of the real nature of the disease, and having predetermined in the event of a case of Hydrophobia ever coming under my charge to follow the practice successfully adopted by Mr. Tymon, of the 22d Light Dragoons, and afterwards by Dr. Shoolbred of Calcutta; I opened a vein in the right arm which I allowed to bleed until the pulse at the wrist ceased, the strong convulsive muscular action also ceased, her countenance became placid and the turgidity of her eyeballs, diminished. Forty-eight ounces of blood were extracted, no delirium supervened—the patient being kept in the horizontal position; the blood was extracted from a large orifice, but it exhibited no buffy coat, nor was it cupped. Pulse shortly after the bleeding ninety-six. Rec. Tinct. Opii gtt. L. Aq. Ment. Pipp. oz. i; mix; to be taken immediately.

19th, 10 P.M.—Succeeded in swallowing the draught and shortly afterwards at her own request had two cups-full of tea which she swallowed with avidity and without much difficulty, has great aversion to strangers, and in her placid intervals does not recognise those she formerly knew, has also great aversion to the admission of light into the chamber,

11 P.M.—Has taken, with a great effort two cups-full more of tea, which brought on a slight spasmodic action of the muscles of the throat and was succeeded by vomiting. Pulse eighty. Adplect. Emp: Mel: Visicat: cervicæ. Being now sensible, has informed her husband that she was bitten by a dog supposed to be mad, about ten weeks ago at St. Thomas's Mount. Anodyne to be repeated.

20th, 6 A.M.—Has not had a return of the convulsive paroxysm during the night, drank water twice but vomited immediately afterwards; is now much dejected and melancholy, is extremely sensible to all external impressions, sighs frequently and appeals to the

scrobiculus cordis as the seat of great pain.

10 A.M.—It being necessary to raise her in bed, Syncope was induced until she was again put in the horizontal position, still expresses the greatest dread of water, and can take her drink only from a tea pot (the sight of it producing a recurrence of the spasms) succeeded at each time by vomiting, &c. slight return of the convulsive muscular action of the throat, her eyes are slightly turgid, but her countenance is still placid. Pulse one hundred in a minute. Sumant. Extract: Opium grs. ii.

7 P.M.—Since my last visit has had occasional slight returns of the spasmodic fits, brought on by the last exciting cause, particularly by seeing some of her relations and children: has swallowed tea in the same manner and with the same difficulty as before, but was not followed by vomiting. Has had rather a severe fit since I entered the room, caused by seeing some water accidentally. Pulse seventy-two, skin moist, no stool since yesterday morning. Sumat Pill: Calomel grs. VIII. Reprtr: Extract Opium grs. ij.

21st.—10 A. M. Mr. Steddy, garrison surgeon, whose absence from the cantonment these two days, I very much regretted, visited the patient with me at this hour, and coincided with me in opinion with respect to the nature of the disease and approved of the plan of treatment adopted. She has enjoyed good rest during the night, but is still extremely irritable, has the greatest aversion to the sight of a mirror and shuddered at the idea of drinking water, the sight of which produced a recurrence of the spasms. Pulse one hundred, heat of surface increased, tongue white. No alvine evacuation since she has been taken ill. Habt: Stat. Enema. com. et. Capt: Pil: Aloe: Comp: No. ij.

12 A.M.—The spasms have been frequent and severe since last report, excited by her repeated attempts to satiate her thirst; in consultation with Mr. Steddy, it was determined to repeat the bleeding; I accordingly opened another vein and extracted twenty-four ounces of blood. Pulse immediately after the bleeding ninety-six, she became extremely weak, her eyeballs less turgid, and her features altogether as-

sumed a more favourable expression: has retained the enema.

6 P.M.—Has not had a return of the spasms since the last bleeding. No alvine evacuation. Repetant. Pilule et Enema. com.

9 P.M.—Has had a very severe fit, caused by the administration of the Clyster, but is again perfectly sensible and calm. Pulse seventy-two. Rec. Extract. Opium gr. ij. Gum. Camp. Scr: I M. ft. Bolus Stat. Sumendus.

11 P.M.—No return of the paroxysm, is at present in a sound sleep. Pulse and heat of surface natural.

22d, 6. A. M.—Has enjoyed good rest—she has drank freely out of a tea cup, and can look at a mirror without experiencing any disagreeable sensations: the turgidity of her eyes entirely gone and her countenance is calm. One copious evacuation from the clyster. Pulse and heat of surface natural, quietness to be observed and all irritations removed.

12 A.M.—No return of the spasms, although she has drank tea out of a cup twice, pain at the scrobiculus cordis much abated: the extreme sensibility which has marked the disease throughout, very much diminished—she having now no dreadful apprehensions of her fate, aversion to strangers, or the admission of light: has even no dread of water which I brought to her, but said it was still disagreeable to immerse her hand in it.

9 P.M.—Continues tranquil—no alvine evacuation since the operation of the clyster—Pulse and heat of surface continue natural—Rept. Pil Aloe. Comp. No. ij.

23d, 10 A. M.—Had troublesome dreams during the first part of the night, towards morning enjoyed good rest. Has had her hands washed in water this morning without any reluctance; the other symptoms of the disease have entirely yielded: leaving her very much debilitated.

24, 10 A.M.—Amendment progressive.

25,—Discontinued my attendance: having the pleasure of observing my patient recovering her strength rapidly.

REMARKS.—I think there cannot exist a single doubt of this being a well marked instance of Hydrophobia; and

that the happy result is to be attributed to the early and cold use of the lancet, seems equally doubtful. When the subject of it was apprehensive of instant death, she informed her husband that she was bitten by a dog supposed to be mad, as stated in the report communicated at my third visit: I think it proper however to mention that for reasons which I cannot define, she now, after her perfect recovery says, she does not recollect that the dog bit her, but that it leaped on her, worried her, and tore the bottom part of her gown. She had several small sores on her leg at the time; and on examination I have discovered a scratch on her left heel which she cannot account for: it is slightly swelled and inflamed. I have to regret the want of professional evidence from the commencement of the disease: yet I think the concurring opinion of Mr. Steddy who witnessed every symptom of Hydrophobia in this case, should strengthen that of a much younger and less experienced Surgeon.

JAMES GIBSON, *Assist. Surg.*
His Majesty's 69th Regt.
Poonamalli, 26th Sept. 1816.

WORMING A DOG.

Allow me to suggest to any member of Parliament the means of rendering an essential service to mankind.

In speaking of Hydrophobia, I will not describe its horrors; the remedy has been sought in vain: the preventive is neglected, or overlooked.

It is well known, that a dog that has been wormed never bites when attacked with this disorder; but dies under its paroxysms quiet and innocuous.

Is it not then obvious, that a law to ensure the worming of all dogs would ensure the human species from even the dread of this fatal malady, and probably eradicate the disease from the canine species? The operation is simple; every village farrier can perform it; the law would be short, and easily understood, inflicting a penalty on those who neglected it, and the destruction of the dog unwormed.

Should any Member of Parliament, attracted by these observations, desire to be better informed of the correctness of the assertion, that a dog that has been wormed never bites when under the influence of this disorder, with a

view of enforcing, by a Legislative Act, the preventive of this dreadful evil; I beg leave to advise a more particular communication on the subject with Dr. Jenner, that enlightened friend of humanity.

Is it necessary to add, that worming a dog is only the extracting of a ligament like a worm from under the tongue.
[Gent. Mag.]

METHOD OF PRESERVING POTATOES.

The usual mode at present practised for endeavouring to preserve potatoes, is to leave them, after digging, exposed to the sun and air, until they are dry. This exposure generally causes them to have a bitter taste, and it may be remarked, that potatoes are never so sweet to the palate as when cooked immediately after digging. I find that when potatoes are left in large heaps or pits in the ground, that a fermentation takes place, which destroys the sweet flavour of the potatoes. In order to prevent that fermentation, and to preserve them from losing the original fine and pleasant flavour, my plan is (and which experience proves to me to have the desired effect), to have them packed in casks as they are dug from the ground, and to have the casks, when the potatoes are piled in them, filled up with sand or earth, taking care that it is done as speedily as possible, and that all vacant spaces in the cask are filled up by the earth or sand. The cask thus packed holds as many potatoes as it would was no earth or sand used in the packing; and as the vacant spaces of the cask of potatoes so packed are filled, the air is totally excluded, and cannot act on the potatoes, and consequently no fermentation can take place.

I sailed from New-York to St. Bartholomew's, and brought with me two hundred barrels of potatoes, packed in the above manner. On my arrival at the island, I found, as I expected, that the potatoes had preserved all their original sweetness of flavour; in fact as good as when first dug, having undergone no fermentation, nor in the slightest degree affected by the bilge or close air of the ship. Some barrels of the potatoes I sold there, and at the neighbouring islands, for four dollars per bushel, and at the same time potatoes taken out in bulk without packing, and others that were brought there

packed in casks which had not been filled up in earth, sold only for one dollar per bushel, they being injured in the passage by the bilged air and fermentation, being bitter and bad, whilst mine were perfectly sweet and dry as when dug. What remained, I shipped from St. Bartholomew's to Jamaica, where they arrived in equal good condition, and sold at a higher price than they had brought at the former island. Some of these casks of potatoes were put into a cool cellar by the purchaser at Jamaica, and on examining them when I was leaving the island, two months after, I found that they had, in a very small degree, sprouted, but that all their original flavour was preserved.

P. S. Carrots may be preserved during the winter months in the same manner.

Europ. Mag.

— WOMAN.

Mr. Ledyard, the celebrated pedestrian traveller, gives the following admirable portrait of benevolence in the fair-sex:—

"I have always remarked, that women in all countries, are civil, obliging, tender, and humane; that they are inclined to be gay and cheerful, timorous and modest; and that they do not hesitate, like men, to perform a generous action. Not haughty, nor arrogant, nor supercilious, they are full of courtesy, and fond of society, more liable, in general, to err than men; but in general also more virtuous, and performing more good actions than them. To a woman, whether civilized or savage, I never addressed myself in the language of decency and friendship, without receiving a decent and friendly answer: with man it has often been otherwise. In wandering over the barren hills of inhospitable Denmark, through honest Sweden, and frozen Lapland, rude and churlish Finland, unprincipled Russia, and the wide-spreading regions of the wandering Tartar; if hungry, cold, dry, wet, or sick, the women have ever been friendly to me, uniformly so: and to add to this virtue, so worthy the appellation of benevolence, these actions have been performed in so free and so kind a manner, that if I was dry, I drank the sweetest draught; and if hungry, I ate the coarsest morsel with a double relish."

— *ib.*

The Large Lie and the Little Lie.—A

merchant was going through a slave-market one day, and happened to see a broker holding a boy by the ear for sale, and calling out, who will purchase a youth accomplished, sensible, learned, and faithful, for one hundred dirhams? 'Why, my good sir,' said the merchant, 'I suspect you must be crazy, for if your boy possess the qualities you mention, he is worth a thousand dirhams.' 'O,' said the broker, 'you see him shining and take him for silver, but if you were acquainted with his failing, you would probably find him copper.' 'Pray what is his failing?' said the merchant, 'and what do you think the cause of it?' 'He tells every year,' said the broker, 'a great lie and a little lie, and each of these I consider as a very serious evil.' 'Pooh, pooh!' said the merchant, 'I look upon this as a mere trifle.' He accordingly purchased the boy, and took him into his service, and finding him expert and skilful in duty, placed him at the head of all his servants. But it happened some time after, that the merchant, accompanied by some of his friends, went out to his garden, and sent the boy home about sunset to bring him his ass, but the boy, as soon as he approached his master's house, rent his clothes, and threw dust upon his head, and exclaimed, 'O alas, alas, my master! the lord of my bounty!' The merchant's wife concluded, from his appearance, that some misfortune had happened to him, and said, 'alas, boy, what is the meaning of this outcry?' 'Ah!' replied he, 'the roof of the house has fallen in upon my master and crushed him to pieces with all the other merchants.' The wives of the merchants, who happened to be invited there by the lady of the house, as soon as they heard the report of the slave, beat their faces in despair, and began to run towards the garden, but the boy got before them, and entered it, tearing his clothes like a frantic person, and throwing dust on his head, in the same manner as he had done before the women. The merchants, surprised at his appearance, asked the cause of his distress. 'Ah! I believe,' he replied, 'a spark of fire escaped from the hands of one of the maid-servants, and has set fire to your house, and I do not think there is a single child that has not been burned to death, nay not one even of the maid-servants, nor one of your wives.' The merchants, hearing this,

run out, all distracted: one weeping for his sister and wife, the other for the daughter of his relation; but, when they got about half way home, both parties met on the road, and every one saw their friend safe, and discovered that the whole was a trick played upon them by the lying valet. 'What has tempted you,' said his master, 'to this act?' 'Do you not know,' replied the boy, 'that I was bound to tell you every year a great lie and a little one?' 'Well,' said the merchant, 'and under what class must I place the present? Is this the large lie or the little one?' 'O this is the little lie,' replied the boy; 'the large one you shall have by and by!' 'This little lie,' said the merchant, 'will answer my purpose. I now give you your liberty; so set off, and find some other person of more consequence to practise your large lie upon.'

Asiatic Journal.

Expedition to the Congo.—We are sorry to state the death of captain Campbell, the able and zealous commander of the other unfortunate, but well-meant endeavour to explore the interior of Africa. A letter from Sierra Leone of June 30, states, that intelligence of the loss had arrived at that place a few days before. Captain Campbell was reported to have died of the effects of disappointment. The second naval officer in command, who had been left at Sierra Leone, on account of ill-health, but was recovered, and on his way to join the expedition, returned to Sierra Leone, on hearing of captain Campbell's death, to consult the governor as to the propriety of persevering or desisting from further attempts; the case is reported to be referred home to lord Bathurst. *ib.*

New Discoveries in Egypt.—To the end of time Egypt must continue to excite the amazement and research of travellers. Additional discoveries of ancient works have recently been made. We are led to expect shortly from Mr. Salt, our consul-general in that country, a more correct transcript of the inscription on the column of Dioclesian (commonly called that of Pompey) than has hitherto appeared; and we understand that the same ardent traveller, assisted by a foreign officer of the name of Cariglio, has not only succeeded in transporting from Thebes very interesting

fragments of Egyptian sculpture, but has also discovered a passage cut in the solid rock, 400 feet in length, under the great pyramid, with chambers at the lower extremity, and a communication with the mysterious well which has hitherto puzzled all our antiquaries and travellers. Excavations have also been effected among the sepulchral structures in the neighbourhood upon the Desert; and, among other curiosities, a small temple, and fine granite tablet, have been discovered between the lion's paws of the Sphinx. *ib.*

Volcanic Eruptions.—Accounts are stated to have been received from Batavia of the 15th of March, which state, among other things, that the mountain Idjing, twenty-four leagues from Banjoewangie, emitted fire in the month of January, particularly on the 23d and 24th, when the eruptions were very violent; the surrounding country was covered with ashes.

In many places there were great inundations, so that the waters rose fourteen feet above the usual level; the damage done was very great, and occasioned a scarcity of provisions. Subsequent accounts from that district, of 18th March, state that the mountain still continued to smoke, and that daily inundations took place, which destroyed many rice fields; the fields which the water has left are covered with mud and ashes; the usual water courses were stopped up by the ashes, or large trees thrown from the mountain, so that it was impossible to plant the rice fields. The air was obscured by smoke and light ashes, so that the sun and moon appeared of the colour of blood. The health of the inhabitants is injured by the bad water, and numbers of cattle die.

The rivers every where burst their banks, and in many places rose as high as fourteen feet above their ordinary level. The affrighted inhabitants fled from all parts towards the shore and town of Banjoewangie, but were stopped at every step, in consequence of the roads being rendered impassable by the inundations and the destruction of the bridges. The subsequent news is somewhat more assuring; the mountain has ceased to emit any more fire; but the atmosphere continues darkened with clouds of ashes and smoke, nor have the inundations yet abated. The

devastations occasioned by this disastrous phenomenon is fearful; and there is reason to apprehend that it will occasion a great scarcity of provisions. Many people are suffering under diseases occasioned by the bad quality given to the waters by the ashes, and a general mortality has seized the horned cattle. In the district of Gabang the mountain Goenang Loewer sunk in on the 27th

February, and buried a hampong of eight families who dwelt upon it. A similar event took place on the night of the 4th and 5th of March, in the district of Talega, where a number of houses, with all their inmates, were in like manner overwhelmed in ruin, and not a trace of their existence left. Many rice fields are buried, and the river Ty Dienkiah is quite dried up. ib.

ENGLAND.

The Navy.—The following is the present disposition of the British naval force.

STATIONS.	Line.	50 to 44	Frigates.	Sloops, &c.	Bombs, &c.	Brigs.	Cutters.	Schooners, &c.
Sheerness and Downs, - - - - -	2	0	0	1	0	4	0	0
Leith Station, - - - - -	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
Eng. C. and Coast of Fr. - - - - -	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1
Irish Station, - - - - -	1	0	1	1	0	4	0	1
Jersey, Guernsey, &c. - - - - -	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Spain, Port. and Gib. - - - - -	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mediterr. and on Passage - - - - -	1	0	2	3	0	2	0	0
Coast of Africa, - - - - -	0	0	1	1	0	0	6	0
Halifax and Newfoundland, - - - - -	2	0	4	3	0	5	0	1
Leeward Islands, - - - - -	0	1	2	0	0	3	0	0
Jamaica and on Passage - - - - -	0	1	2	4	0	6	0	0
South America, - - - - -	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
C. of G. Hope and South - - - - -	1	1	2	3	0	7	0	0
E. Indies and on Passage - - - - -	1	0	6	2	0	3	0	0
TOTAL AT SEA.	9	3	21	19	0	40	0	3
In Port and fitting, - - - - -	6	0	6	3	0	9	3	3
Guard ships, - - - - -	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hosp. and Pris. ships, - - - - -	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL IN COM.	19	3	27	22	0	49	3	6
Ord. and repairing for service - - - - -	112	16	68	28	6	112	0	0
Building, - - - - -	20	0	8	2	0	2	0	0
TOTALS, - - - - -	151	19	103	52	6	163	3	6

DON VALENZUELA has discovered that meat may be preserved fresh for many months by keeping it immersed in molasses.

Extraordinary circumstance.—At the Stafford Assizes, on the 26th instant, two soldiers, named Hall and Morrison, were convicted of robbery, and ordered for execution. They were prosecuted by a man named Read, a bricklayer's labourer, who swore that

they knocked him down, and robbed him in the church-yard of Welleshampton, on the 23d of July; and the evidence of the woman in whose house they resided, went to prove they did not sleep at home that night. There was no other evidence. It appeared, however, subsequently to the conviction, that the soldiers did take 1s. 4d. which fell from the prosecutor's pocket while he was wrestling with Hall for amusement, but they had no intention

of felony; and that Read had no idea of indicting them, until he was instigated by a man of the name of Roberts, the keeper of the house of correction at Wolverhampton, with the view of gaining the reward called "Blood Money," which was accordingly pocketed by Read and the keeper of the prison, to the amount of 80*l*. This case having been fully established, and laid before Lord Sidmouth, by the Rev. Mr. Guard, a highly respectable clergyman, his Lordship granted a respite. The men who bear good characters, have since been liberated.—*Edin. Mag.*

FRANCE.

Description of Egypt.—The French government is proceeding in a spirited manner with the grand *Description of Egypt*, begun by the command of Bonaparte. Two *livraisons*, as it is well known, have appeared. The third will be divided into two sections, the first of which is nearly ready. This section contains 200 plates; 74 of antiquities, 45 belonging to the modern state, and 81 to natural history: They are accompanied with four parts of text, namely, two of antiquities, one of modern state, and one of natural history. The price of this section is 800 francs on fine, and 1200 francs on vellum, paper. The second half of the third *livraison*, which will complete this magnificent work, will appear in the course of the year 1818. It will contain 200 engravings belonging to the three departments of Antiquities, Modern State, and Natural History, and a geographical atlas of Egypt, comprising a general map of the country, in 83 plates. The price of the two papers will be 1200 francs and 1800 francs.

ib.

A new species of wheat.—A variety of wheat, indigenous to Egypt, which grows so rapidly, that it is fit to reap three months after sowing, has been for some years cultivated in Belgium. Several agriculturists are endeavouring to introduce it into France. They assert that the bread made with it is of far superior quality to that of rye. It is obvious that, under various circumstances, this new acquisition may be a resource of the highest importance.

ib.

Natural History.—M. de Lahande, one of the directors of the Museum of Natural History, is preparing for a new

voyage for the promotion of that science. During a short excursion to Brazil he collected more than four thousand zoological subjects, which prove how much yet remains to be done before we can acquire just and sufficiently extensive notions of those remote regions. ib.

GERMANY.

Royal literary expedition.—The Emperor of Austria, desirous of advancing useful knowledge, and transplanting to his dominions some of the valuable natural productions of the New World, has availed himself of the opportunity of the marriage and departure of his daughter the archduchess Leopoldine, to send to Brazil a number of men of science, who, with the permission of the King of Portugal, are directed to explore the most remarkable parts of that country, to examine the different productions of the three kingdoms of nature, and to enrich the European collections with specimens of them. His imperial majesty has granted the sums necessary for the expedition, and given the chief direction of it to Prince Metternich. The Persons appointed to proceed to Brazil for this purpose are:—Dr Mikon, physician and professor of botany at Prague; M. Gatterer, belonging to the cabinet of natural history; M. Enders, landscape painter; M. Schott, botanical gardener at the palace of Belvedere; Professor Pohl, advantageously known by several works on mineralogy; M. Buchberger, painter of plants; and M. Schick as librarian. The first four sailed from Trieste in the frigates *Austria* and *Augusta*, and the other three will embark at Leghorn with the archduchess. M. Schreiber, director of the imperial cabinet of natural history, is appointed to write the account of the voyage. Messers Spix and Martens, members of the Academy of Sciences at Munich, have joined the expedition. ib.

ITALY.

Roman Antiquities.—A letter from Rome, dated the 15th May last, gives the following interesting particulars relative to the antiquities lately discovered in that city: "You have probably heard of the discovery near Albano, of an ancient burial-place, covered with the lava of the volcano which afterwards produced the lakes of Albano

and Nemi. At this place were found a great quantity of vases of terra cotta, containing others of a peculiar form of the same material, also utensils, *fibulae* of bronze, small wheels, and ashes of the dead. M. Alexander Visconti, in a dissertation read before the Archaeological Academy, attributes them to the Aborigines. It is certain, that as these vases were covered with the lava, they must be anterior to the foundation of Alba Longa, which was built after the extinction of the volcanoes.—The excavations are continued at the Forum, as also on the declivity of the Capitol facing it. The Portuguese ambassador, the count de Funchal, a very intelligent man and zealous antiquary, has caused the ancient *Clivus Capitolinus* or street which ascended from the Forum to the Capitol, to be cleared at his own expense. The ancient pavement was found constructed in the usual manner of Roman pavements, of basaltine lava, which they call *siler*. The street ran from the arch of Septimus, between the temples commonly called those of Jupiter Tonans and of Concord; and in the distance of 140 feet between those two temples and the arch, there is a difference in the level of 13 feet, which must have rendered the ascent very inconvenient.—By the side of the temple of Jupiter Tonans, towards the Mamertine prison, the government has just cleared the remains of an edifice hitherto totally unknown, and highly decorated. It seems to have been destroyed by fire; but there is still an ancient pavement formed of slabs of Numidian, Phrygian, and African marble; and many fragments and blocks of marble which formed the decorations. They are of the most exquisite workmanship, very delicate and very rich, which leads me to believe that the building was of the age of the Vespasians; and since it is known, that near the arch of Septimus stood the temple of Vespasian, I am inclined to attribute these relics to that edifice, especially as the trunks of two colossal statues have been found there, one of an emperor, and the other of a female having the air of a Juno, but who might possibly be an empress under that form. This, however, is but conjecture.—Among these relics have been found fragments of columns of Numidian and Phrygian marble, which decorated the interior of the cells. The walls were also

faced with Phrygian and Caryatian marble. It is to be hoped that some inscription will remove all doubts on the subject, and determine the use of the edifice.—The column of Phocas is almost entirely cleared, at the expense of the duchess of Devonshire, and under the direction of our mutual friend, M. Akerblad. Two sepulchral inscriptions have been found here. They do not belong to the column, and must have been brought hither in the middle ages. A very interesting discovery has however been made respecting this column, namely, that it was erected on a pyramid of steps, one of the four sides of which is in good preservation. It has been erroneously stated, that the discoveries made near the edifice commonly called the temple of Jupiter Stator, or the temple of Castor and Pollux, corroborate the idea, that these are the remains of the Museum. There was no edifice at Rome known by that name; but the most likely opinion is, that it was the *Comitium*, or place to which the people resorted to vote for the acceptance of the *senatus consulta*, and the election of priests; and this opinion, first advanced by Nardini, is daily rendered more probable. There is every appearance that the forum will be entirely cleared—a work of very great interest for the topography of Rome. Without the gate of St. Sebastian, near the *Via Ardeatina*, in a farm belonging to the dutchess of Chablais, called Tor Marancio, have been found a considerable number of ancient Mosaic pavements, antique paintings, and fragments of sculpture. Inscriptions on the leaden pipes which conveyed the water thither, seem to indicate that this was the villa of the Manutia family. The pavements represent nothing but trellises or compartments, only one of which displays different colours: the others generally are white or black. One of these pavements is very remarkable: upon it are seen the ship of Ulysses and the Syrens, one of whom, with birds' feet, is playing on a lyre. In another part of it is represented Scylla, half woman and half fish, enfolding two men with her two tails, and striking the water with a ship's rudder. The paintings decorate a small chamber, and are remarkable for the subject alone; they represent three females of infamous celebrity, but in the most decorous attitude. They are inscribed beneath Pa-

siphac, Myrrha, and Canace. A fourth, whose name is effaced, appears to be *Scylla.*
Edin. Mag.

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A material for roofing, cheap and durable, is formed by dipping sheets of coarse paper (such as button-makers use) in boiling tar, and nailing them on boards or laths, exactly in the same manner as slates. Afterwards the whole is to be painted with a mixture of pitch and powdered coal, chalk, or brickdust. This forms a texture, which completely resists every description of weather for an unknown time. Extensive warehouses at Deal, Dover, and Canterbury, and churches and farm-houses in the north, have been so roofed for more than fifty years, without requiring repairs.
Mon. Mag.

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Mr. COLERIDGE's *Sybelline Leaves* prove that, though in days of *error*, he was a man of sterling genius, yet that the light of *truth*, which now blazes upon him, has blighted his fancy. This is as it should be, fable and poetry; fact and dullness. "Fire, famine, and slaughter," the poet's master-piece, written in 1794, fills six pages of the volume; but in 1817 he judges it necessary to preface it by twenty-four pages of apology, in which Pitt, his fiend of 1794, is, by the same pen, in 1817, converted into "a good man and great statesman."
ib.

The ingenious authoress of *Conversations on Chymistry*, has published a pleasing volume of *Conversations on Botany*, which nothing but the inveterate dullness of scientific nomenclature will prevent from becoming as popular as her former work.
ib.

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An edition, in English, of Madame de Genlis' *Palace of Truth*, her masterpiece, and the most instructive moral story extant; and a French version of *l'Enfant Prodigue*, both illustrated with coloured engravings, serve as a valuable accession to books of education.
ib.

Mr. Hogg, the Shepherd of Ettrick, is about to publish, by a subscription which deserves to be liberally filled, a Fifth Edition of his "Queen's Wake," illustrated by the Artists of Edinburgh.
ib.

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Proposals have been issued for publishing by subscription, in three vols. 12mo, *Historical and Literary Botany*,

containing the qualities, anecdotes, and superstitions relative to those trees, plants, and flowers, which are mentioned in sacred and profane history; the particulars of some rare and curious plants which bear the names of celebrated persons; and also those which are used in the religious worship and civil ceremonies of divers nations; together with the devices, proverbs, &c. which derive their origin from these vegetables: concluding with a romantic story, entitled, "Flowers, from the French of Madame de Genlis, with explanatory notes," &c.; by Eliza J. Reid.
Edin. Mag.

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A. FINLEY, of this city, proposes to publish 'A Quarterly Theological Review,' to be conducted by the Rev. Ezra Stiles Ely, A.M. The four numbers to be published annually, are to contain 600 large octavo pages. It is stated to be the chief object of the Review, to make its readers well acquainted with all the most important Theological Works which shall be either published or re-published in America. The price to subscribers will be *three dollars a year*; and to others, *one dollar for each number*. We are informed that the first number will be published on the first of January next, and will contain, among other things, a Review of the late 'Essay' of Bishop White, and of the 'Reply' to it by J. E. All the matter of this Theological Review, except the extracts from the works reviewed, is to be original.

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"ROB ROY."

The literary world is looking with great anxiety for the appearance of this novel. The hero of it is Robert Roy Macgregor, so celebrated in Scottish song and story. The tale will no doubt be located among the wild scenes of Loch Lomond, where Rob Roy's cave and his haunts are still pointed out. The author of these novels still remains unavowed, though the general belief has fixed upon Walter Scott. He has certainly been among the scenery of Loch Lomond early last summer. The very anticipation of the novel we are told has drawn the attention of travellers to the scenes of Rob Roy's exploits. So great is the demand for the extraordinary productions of this author that we are told ten thousand copies of Rob Roy are printing. *Ed. Analectic.*

FAREWELL ADDRESS,

SPOKEN BY MR. KEMBLE, AT THE EDINBURGH THEATRE.

WRITTEN BY WALTER SCOTT.

As the war-worn horse, at the trumpet's sound,
Erects his mane, and neighs, and paws the ground—
Disdains the ease his generous lord assigns,
And longs to rush on the embattled lines,
So I, your plaudits ringing on mine ear,
Can scarce sustain to think our parting near;
To think my scenic hour forever past,
And that those valued plaudits are my last.

But years steal on, and higher duties crave
Some space between the theatre and grave;
That, like the Roman in the capitol,
I may adjust my mantle ere I fall:
My life's brief act in public service flown,
The last, the closing scene must be my own.

Here, then, adieu! while yet some well-graced parts
May fix an ancient favourite in your hearts;
Not quite to be forgotten, even when
You look on better actors—younger men:
And if your bosoms own this kindly debt
Of old remembrance, how shall mine forget?
Oh, how forget!—how oft I hither came,
In anxious hope, how oft returned with fame;
How oft around your circle this weak hand
Has waved immortal Shakspeare's magic wand,
Till the full burst of inspiration came,
And I have felt and you have fann'd the flame!
By Mem'ry treasur'd, while her reign endures,
These hours must live—and all their charms are yours.

O favour'd land! renown'd for arts and arms,
For manly talent and for female charms,
Could this full bosom prompt the sinking line,
What fervent benedictions now were thine!
But my last part is play'd, my knell is rung,
When ev'n your praise falls faltering from my tongue,
And all that you can hear, or I can tell,
Is—friends and patrons, hail, and fare you well!

The above Address was delivered by Mr. Kemble with great effect, under frequent interruptions from the feelings of the audience; and loud applause continued after the exit of this long admired actor.



